The Nation.

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The Week.

Secretary Root's completion of his South American circuit is worthy of more than its indifferent reception by our press and public. He has had something like a triumphal progress. His bearing has been at once dignified and tactful, and his public utterances have been weighty and at the same time conciliatory. The happiest impression has been made throughout his tour, and this country has been placed in a newly advantageous position to strengthen friendly and profitable relations with the countries to the south of us. But what sign is there that anything will really be done? What evidence can any one point to that the Americans of the North are prepared to shake off their old contemptuous attitude towards the Americans of the South? The truth is that years of the protective tariff have made us a home-keeping nation, with homely wits. We are not keen enough to see, or to care, that the Germans and English are far outstripping us in the South American trade, and for obvious reasons. If we give any attention to the matter at all, it is in order to emit a stupid growl at the "unfriendly" way in which Brazilians and Argentinos buy more of our rivals than they do of us; and then to talk again of falling back on bounties and hostile tariffs to do for us what only energy and skill can achieve. Mr. Root's voyage has put us in the way to change all that, if we would; but we fear it will be long before our protectionists can bring themselves to think of wool and copper and hides as aught except inviting objects for thumping tariff duties.

The agreement at the Rio conference Monday in favor of uniformity in customs legislation, consular regulations, and the publication of statistics among the American republics, is one of those resolutions which every one agrees to at sight, but which encounter all manner of obstacles in their execution. The movement in this country toward uniform methods of municipal accounting has even greater practical advantages to recommend it, yet for all its creditable progress the result aimed at is still far off. Part of this is due to sheer inertia. As regards the classification of goods, methods of manifesting, and so forth, a fresh start would not present great difficulties, once it is agreed which features of the diverse existing systems are worth preserving. But on the point of international statistics another consideration comes in. As tables of trade and the like are reformed so as to be comparable with those of other countries, they cease to be comparable with those of previous years at home. As they become more useful in a horizontal plane, so to speak, they become less useful vertically. The disadvantages are outweighed greatly by the advantages, but natural conservatism defeats a good many desirable reforms.

Signs of party break-up are visible all around the political horizon. Here in New York conditions are chaotic beyond recollection. The Hearst movement is a striking witness to the relaxing hold of party and to the vague desire of multitudes that new methods and new leaders be given a trial. And evidence comes from State after State of similar discontent and unrest. In Massachusetts insurrection is astir in both parties. New Jersey is baffling all prediction as to what will occur in her politics. Even in the boss-ridden Republicanism of Ohio, there are mutterings of revolution. With the State machine fully in their control, Senators Foraker and Dick had yet to suffer the mortification of having 47 out of 88 counties vote against their domination. There may come good or there may come evil from this breaking-up of the fountains of the political deep. In so far as it signifies a growing independence, a disposition to go behind party names to political realities, a reaching after a more sincere and vital leadership, with a determination to destroy the corrupt alliance between selfish politicians and unscrupulous corporations, we certainly can but welcome it. It will teach citizens to think freely and vote independently. It will warn bosses that they are but mortal. It will help the people to regard party in its true light—merely a political means to a political end, and always to be cast aside when it forgets or imperils the end. People in rebellion against existing political conditions must not, however, suppose that any political conditions whatever can usher in the millennium. In a little book just published by the hard-headed French economist and publicist, M. Yves Guyot, is a sane discussion of the causes and perils of French Socialism. A part of his analysis is applicable to this country in such a time of political unrest as the present. He points out the impossibility of doing away with governmental and economic realities by any form of political words or party professions. Socialism as a political force is, he contends, really a revival of the belief in miracles, though these latter-day ones are to be wrought by the Government. To preserve while improving should be the steady rule of the statesman. Without revolution or even rash experiment, it should be possible to take advantage of the new spirit abroad in the land in order to arouse a new and effective desire for public justice, for the equal enforcement of the law, for the striking down of all forms of favoritism, and for the unchaining in every way of the spirit of individual enterprise.

Capt. John J. Pershing, Fifteenth Cavalry, whom President Roosevelt has just advanced to the rank of brigadier-general, obtains his great promotion at the expense of 257 captains, 364 majors, 131 lieutenant-colonels, and 110 colonels, all of whom he overslaughs. The special excuse for this extraordinary advancement is Capt. Pershing's work while commander of a small force in the Lake Lanao country of Mindanao, in 1902. In its extent and results this achievement would have ranked during our civil war as one of a thousand raids into the enemy's country to which no special attention was paid. There is very considerable difference of opinion in army circles as to the military value of the exploit; some officers maintain that it accomplished little or nothing permanent, and that, so far from being an expedition into country unknown to Americans, officers with small escorts had several times traversed this district without causing any bloodshed whatever, or even being threatened. Obviously, the worth of Capt. Pershing's exploit, and his own personal conduct, ought to have been clearly established, at least to the satisfaction of the service, before being so munificently rewarded. With the theory that Capt. Pershing's promotion was due to his being a son-in-law of Senator Warren, the chairman of the Senate Military Affairs Committee, we have no sympathy. That is merely a coincidence, for which Capt. Pershing deserves—*from one point of view*—commiseration. But the fact remains that Capt. Pershing's brother officers are not at all enthusiastic over his advancement. The resulting injury to the service is manifold: (1) It intensifies the bitterness and dissatisfaction growing out of the advancements or appointments of Grant, Wood, Funston, A. L. Mills, and others; (2) it puts a premium on slaughter in the Philippines, as an easy way to high rank, and (3) it does the gravest injustice to the present colonels of cavalry, some of whom, like Augur, Kerr, and Morton, have well earned promotion. Col. Morton was a private in July, 1861, when Capt. Pershing was exactly ten months old. It is

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true that Mr. Roosevelt had to make Capt. Pershing a brigadier, or give him no particular reward; but this merely emphasizes the need of a general law affecting all cases of really distinguished service.

"It is almost certain," acknowledges Chairman Sherman, "that in the next House the immense Republican majority will be cut down somewhat." In fact, no Republican authority thus far has expressed the slightest hope of retaining the present unexampled majority in the House. The combined Congressional pluralities in Maine were reduced from 26,154 in 1904 to something between 7,700 and 8,600 in 1906; that is, a loss of between 4,300 and 4,600 to a district. The Republican majority could withstand that scaling down in Maine. It is natural to ask how many other Republican districts are strong enough to do so. The answer is found in the list of Republican Congressmen elected in 1904 by pluralities of less than 4,300. There are fifty-three Republican Congressmen whom a Democratic success within their districts equal to that in Maine would defeat outright. The House now contains 249 Republicans to 137 Democrats. Subtract 53 from the former, add it to the latter, and the complexion of the body would be Republicans 196, Democrats 190. Maine September elections are not, however, like those of Vermont, regarded as prophetic. It will not do to draw too positive inferences. But certain facts stand out clearly. The Republicans do not expect a repetition of 1904, but rather a restoration of the conditions that prevailed when a strongly Republican Congress was elected in 1902.

The insurgents who opposed the reduction of the Philippine tariff because their own districts produced tobacco or sugar attained a great deal of notoriety last winter. But the smaller body of men who placed national honor above parochial considerations are more worthy to be remembered. Those who had the courage to vote against the immediate wish of their tobacco and beet-growing constituents did so with full knowledge of the effect it might have on their political fortunes. Connecticut and Wisconsin are the chief Northern tobacco-growing States; of the five representatives from the former, only one member, Mr. Hill, voted for relief to the Filipinos, and of the eleven from Wisconsin only two, Messrs. Cooper and Esch. It is against these two that the issue of this vote has first been raised. Both men were vehemently attacked for their "blow to home industry," but it is to the credit of their Republican constituencies that both were renominated at the recent primaries, Cooper by a majority of more than two to one, Esch without any opposition at all. The fact that, in spite of angry talk, they were not punished for their conscientiousness in voting should be an encouragement to other members in both branches of Congress. It is the community which gives its representatives a free hand that comes in time to be represented by men of statesmanlike size.

The growing interest in the primary—the struggle in this city on Tuesday is a case in point—is seized upon by some as an objection to the whole system of the official and law-protected primary. It really gives us two elections, it is said, thus unnecessarily doubling their labor, their cost, and their turmoil. To this complaint it may fairly be rejoined that the pains of the method may be but the inevitable pains of free government. As Jules Lemaître has said, there are ways of freedom (*mœurs de liberté*) which are not always easy or agreeable, but which are necessary if self-government is to be worked. Arbitrary rule would spare us all such trouble, but it would spare us all our democratic rights, too. Of course, the freedom which primary reform has aimed at, is freedom from boss or machine dictation. Really to invite and empower the rank and file of a party to make their own nominations, instead of meekly or angrily taking them cut and dried from a boss, requires work and time and vexation of spirit. And if it takes the equivalent of two elections to work out this great deliverance, it is not for the heirs of our fathers to repine. The official primary, even when of imperfect form, affords a new ground for appeal to the party voter to attend to his political duties. There is every reason, however, why that weapon should be made as effective as possible. The official primary is a great improvement, but it falls short of the direct primary. In New York, as in New Jersey, we still elect delegates in the primaries; in Wisconsin, in Georgia, in Texas, actual nominations are made in the primaries. This certainly makes for a clear understanding, and for thorough work while the job is in hand.

A number of literary and magazine folk of prominence in various good-government movements have combined to form a "People's Lobby," and appeal to the public for support, asking merely dollar subscriptions. What is proposed is a vigilance committee adapted to twentieth-century conditions and the longitude of Washington. All legislation will be subjected to expert scrutiny, flaws careless or intentional will be reported to the appropriate Congressional committees, the personal responsibility for delaying or defeating good legislation will be fixed, and he who bedevils a good measure will be held up to universal scorn. Towards so much zeal for the republic it is very difficult for us to take a skeptical attitude. But we are constrained to doubt if the matter of securing good Federal laws is as simple as having even the most authoritative committee tell Congress what to do and what to leave undone—on pain of being reported to the people. Furthermore, the vigilantes most in evidence, though we sincerely believe them to be "independent of concentrated capital and of organized labor," have not established a reputation for discretion. We believe that many of them have done good, and we are in no sympathy with the present practice of dismissing them all with the epithet of muckraker; but we cannot see that they have made good their pretensions to be regarded as tribunes of the people. But were we to accept their magazine articles at their own estimate, we should still remember that the task of getting good Congressional Government is not that of contriving a brilliant censorship in the name of the people, but the far greater enterprise of rousing the average voter to a sense of his responsibilities.

Food adulteration is an amiable and harmless practice beside drug adulteration and substitution. The disclosures made through the investigations of Dr. Darlington, Health Commissioner of New York city, are certainly startling enough, though they were foreshadowed by earlier inquiries of a less exhaustive sort. Out of 10,000 samples of standard drugs bought in the retail market of this city, only about 28 per cent. "can be considered good"; 16 per cent. called for warnings to the manufacturer, while no less than 56 per cent. were bad enough to justify prosecution under the laws of this State. It is a rather interesting circumstance that Dr. Darlington expects to be able to remedy these conditions through the agency of existing laws, and before the National Pure Food act goes into effect at all. The function of that measure is to protect the scrupulous and careful States from being victimized by those which provide no safeguards against dishonest products. It will be vastly easier to keep such goods out of any local market after this new law takes effect, but it does not do away with the need for vigilance on the part of others than the Federal officials.

Although the formation of a British General Staff is announced as a new departure, a *de facto* General Staff has existed for some time past. Warmly recommended by the Esher committee on army reorganization, its adoption was forced by the glaring weaknesses shown in the Boer war, precisely as the American General Staff was the result of the

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breakdown of the War Department bureaus in 1898. For England, it is, as Mr. Haldane remarks, "a very important step in the reconstitution of the British military system." Yet, like independent commentators on the American General Staff, he does not guarantee that the new body will of itself give permanent satisfaction. A General Staff is a valuable piece of machinery, but upon the men who work it, and their spirit, depends its value to the nation. Mr. Haldane warns the English army that, if its new staff officers prove to be merely pedantic theorists, they will fail to benefit the service. With us the danger has been that the General Staff might become an advocate of a large army. Fortunately, its activity in the direction of new legislation has been limited to drawing measures asked for by the Secretary of War. As a whole, its influence has been excellent, and its beneficial effect on the army has been visible in many ways. The British General Staff should be able to forward even greater reforms than ours, and, if it has wisdom and popular support, eventually make of the English army a competent machine from both the military and the business points of view.

The strength and influence of the Labor party in Parliament attracted especial attention to this year's Trade-Union Congress, which was held in Liverpool and adjourned on the 8th of September. With the present Liberal Government the congress seemed on the whole well pleased. It was not, however, satisfied with the Trade Disputes bill, introduced by the Government to nullify the effect of the Taff-Vale decision, which made trade-union funds liable. The congress demanded the complete immunity of the trade-union treasury. The bill to which the congress objects makes it possible to attach these funds in certain cases. For many of its provisions there is general support; yet it is essentially a dangerous measure, since, as so distinguished a jurist as Lord Lindley has just pointed out in a public letter, it concedes to the trade unions the right to stand above the law and to be accorded special privileges and immunities which are not given to other classes of the community. Not satisfied with attacking the special privileges of others, the labor unionists desire a few for themselves. Moreover, the bill would give them the right to coerce the non-union man into joining their organizations, although it is the duty of the state to safeguard every man who desires to work in or out of a union. So far as its attitude on this bill goes, the Trade-Union Congress will do much to strengthen the fears of those who behold in the Labor party in politics a menace to British political institutions and traditions.

The recent illness of the Sultan calls attention to the attitude of the Turkish court toward modern medical science. Abdul Hamid II. was so fortunate as to be brought up under the care of a Greek physician, Mawrogeni Pasha, who taught him the rules of personal hygiene from his childhood. It was he who advised the Sultan, after his accession, to abandon the old palace and build a new one on the heights. It was he who was responsible for the numerous modern hospitals built in the provinces as well as in the capital. But the time came when he fell into disfavor. An Albanian, Beiram Effendi, became the head of the medical staff, and his view of medical science was almost as scornful as that of a Christian Scientist. He knew nothing whatever of surgery, and opposed it fanatically. Bernhard Stern relates in his recent volume on the Sultan, that during the last war with Greece, Beiram would not allow the wounded to be operated on; his argument was that if God willed it they would recover any way, and, if not, amputation would be a crime. A special hospital was built for him, where, somehow, it nearly always seemed God's will that the patients should die. He rejected antisepsis and iodoform, and spoke disrespectfully of the microbe theory. The Sultan's personal attitude at present is by no means hostile to medical science. As we have just seen, he occasionally sends to Germany or Austria for experts. The "court pharmacy" is never patronized by him, his drugs and medicines being specially prepared in an office near his private apartments.

During the last fifty-five years the private wealth of Switzerland has grown from two billions to three billions four hundred millions, a remarkable increase for so small and naturally poor a country. But the most striking fact is that no less than two-fifths of the total have been acquired by the hotel proprietors—a striking testimony not only to the cash value of Switzerland's mountain scenery, but to the efficiency and economy of the Swiss *hôtelier*. As the London *Spectator* points out, the secret of this success is an open one: the hotel-keeper makes his business the study and the science of a lifetime. More than that, the natural beauties of his land have been exploited in a steady, systematic, and conservative manner. Elsewhere it is not so easy to draw tourists, save in Italy. There the tide of travel rises steadily, receding but slightly even in the summer. In France and Germany the attractions are not so obvious; hence in both countries efforts are steadily made to notify the outer world of the special sights or the unusual features which should draw the foreigner with his well-filled purse. So systematic and far-reaching have been the efforts in France to organize *le tourisme* that an account of the principal agencies has recently been deemed worthy of a place in the *Revue de Paris*. They are the Alpine Club, the Touring Club of France, and the so-called "*Syndicats d'Initiative*," groups of professional and business men whose localities are certain to profit by the influx of tourists. From all this there is much to be learned by Americans. The "See America First" movement is widely advertised, and local improvement associations are increasing. The League of American Wheelmen, once so powerful, had on its programme not only road improvement, but the securing for its members of special advantages at the rural hotels. But at present, the railroads are practically the only agencies engaged in exploiting our natural wonders. In these the country is exceedingly rich, and their systematic development must come some day, despite our vast distances. Meanwhile, there is a crying need for a strengthening of the good-roads campaign, for a propaganda for good hotels and inns, and for more scenic-preservation societies.

Prof. Brander Matthews has a long letter in the London *Times* explaining to the heavy-witted Briton the plans of American spelling reformers. Like President Roosevelt, he minimizes the changes proposed in the famous list of 300 words, but he frankly admits that "a second list" will be issued "sooner or later." Professor Matthews perceives that the argument about the saving of the children's time and nerves hardly counts if it is only a question of spelling a few words in a shorter form; and that the principle of "simplification by omission" must be applied rigorously up and down the language. He adds that the American reformers are seeking the aid of English scholars, and announces the adherence of Dr. Murray and Dr. Bradley of the Oxford Dictionary. But another correspondent of the *Times* feels that there must be some mistake about this. He refers to the "Rules for Compositors and Readers at the University Press, Oxford," which, it is explicitly stated, had the sanction of Messrs. Murray and Bradley. One of the rules is:

> "In words ending in 'ment,' always print the 'e' when it occurs in the preceding syllable, as—abridgement, acknowledgement, judgement, lodgement, and, in a note, Dr. Murray says: "I protest against the unscholarly habit of omitting it from abridgement . . . which is against all analogy, etymology, and orthoëpy." "I think the University Press ought to set a scholarly example, instead of following the ignorant to do ill, for the sake of saving four e's."

The correspondent remarks: "This is strong language, and it includes among the ignorant who do ill President Roosevelt and his advisers, for 'abridgment' is the first word in the American list."

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THE SITUATION IN CUBA.

President Roosevelt's letter on Cuban affairs and the dispatch of Messrs. Taft and Bacon to the island have already had a quieting effect. At last some realization of the imminence of a catastrophe has dawned not only upon the rebels, but upon the Government as well, and has led President Palma to stop fighting. If some sort of agreement can be concluded before the arrival of the American envoys, none, we are sure, will be more pleased than Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Taft. The latter would then be free to investigate the causes of the revolution and give such advice as might lead to a permanent peace. Whether that can be obtained now without President Palma's withdrawal from office would seem dubious.

It is the solemn truth which the President told the Cubans. Their civil strife, with its break-up of order and security, is really a war against Cuban independence. Such senseless fighting will, if continued, make American intervention certain. And if this country again has to set up a military rule in Cuba, it means the end of the Cuban republic. Perception of this fact is filling with grief those Cuban patriots who worked and suffered for forty years in the cause of independence, only to see their great hope dashed just as it apparently came to fruition. Nobody can doubt that the President speaks as a sincere friend and well-wisher of Cuba; and that it is a cause of genuine sorrow to him, as to Americans in general, to see the independent Government of Cuba fall in pitiful collapse.

Secretary Taft is an ideal envoy to Cuba. His valuable experience in the Philippines, his poise and sagacity and good humor, his entire freedom from race prejudice, fit him admirably for the conciliatory mission before him. Upon its success, all our desires must now hang. The situation is extraordinary. The Palma Government has shown amazing feebleness, and appears to have but small hold upon the affection or loyalty of the Cuban people. On the other hand, the insurgents are fighting for they scarcely know what. This is evidenced by their really comic eagerness to surrender to Commander Colwell of the Denver. Yet this very state of uncertainty and confusion suggests a way out. If Palma and his supporters can be persuaded by Mr. Taft to meet Zayas and Menocal and the aggrieved veteran generals to talk matters over and agree upon some fair measure for the restoration of peace, Cuba may remain independent. Short of some such plan, there seems to be no way of averting what the world will call the suicide of Cuba.

Annexation, the President must clearly see, would seriously hamper other cherished policies of his. Secretary Root has steadily pointed to our relinquishment of Cuba as the great proof of American disinterestedness in our dealings with Spanish-American countries. "We want no more land; we absolutely do not dream of annexing territory." Obviously, anything like eagerness now to get our hands upon Cuba again would give too cynical an interpretation to these professions. And in the President's plans for interference in Santo Domingo, the Cuban precedent has been the sheet-anchor of his defenders. When it was argued that financial control of the Dominican Republic would soon mean political control, Cuba has always been pointed to as sufficient refutation. Mr. Roosevelt will not voluntarily be drawn into any course that might destroy that argument. Moreover, those who cry out so easily that the Cubans are not fit for self-government, and that we might as well, soon as late, take over the island, forget that, even if Cuba were an American possession, it would have to govern itself, at least locally. If the habit of submission to the majority and the craving for settled and orderly government cannot be established in Cuba the independent republic, the outlook for Cuba as an American Territory or State would be gloomy. Thus it is on all accounts to be hoped that some means may be found of permitting or helping the Cubans to run their own affairs.

JACQUERIE AND REVOLUTION.

The summer is nearly over, the long Russian winter is approaching, and the Russian peasants have not yet risen in revolution. When will they? In October, says Mackenzie Wallace, in an article in the London *Times*. For nearly two years, as insurrection and slaughter have followed each other in the cities of the Empire and left the monarchy intact, the friends of Russian liberty have attempted to make light of mere incidents, like the outbreaks at Moscow or Sveaborg. They bid us wait for the critical moment when Ivan awakes—Ivan who constitutes 85 per cent. of the Czar's subjects, and without whom revolution is impossible—as though the success of revolution is necessarily determined by majorities. But Ivan, if the sum total of his activity is to be justly appraised, has continued to sleep. Repeatedly he has stirred in his slumber, and after his own blundering fashion has struck out, burning a few estates and cutting down some square miles of forest. A recent traveller in Russia says of the peasant:

> He burns crops which he needs to satisfy his hunger; devastates the land which he wishes to possess; and drinks the vodka which yields the tax which he has sworn not to pay. I have driven across long reaches of territory over which previously hordes of drunken peasants had passed, pulling down houses and barns, burning forests and crops, and killing man and beast. They had no definite plan, no distinct object, no clear motive; and when I have asked them why they had done those things, they have scratched their heads, as peasants always do when they are perplexed, and replied: "How can I say?"

What is there to be hoped for from the Russian peasants? Venturing into the dangerous realm of historical comparison, we find in the story of peasant uprisings in the past a record of almost uniform failure, following upon an almost uniform sequence of events—an upflare of leaderless revolt marked by brutal excess, a brief and tumultuous career of triumph, while the erstwhile master is regaining breath from the surprise and mustering strength for the single blow that usually suffices, and then the crashing down of that blow upon an unorganized, pitiful mass, with the ensuing general massacre and battue of panic-stricken refugees. The process is true not only of Jack Cade and the peasants' war in Germany; it is working itself out now on a minor scale in Russia. The trouble with the methods of peasant warfare is that they are undramatic. Probably as many peasants have been whipped to death or shot down by the Cossacks during the last year and a half as fell on the barricades in Moscow last winter. But the affair at Moscow for a moment shook the throne of the autocracy, and the killing of the peasants has received a few scanty notices in the newspapers. The fighting at Sveaborg was momentous because it was a spark that might have set the Empire on fire; the knouting of peasants comes within the ordinary day's work of the Russian policeman. It is sad without being dramatic. The precise parallel obtains among us to whom the crushing to death of thousands on the railroads is but the matter of a paragraph quoted from an uninteresting Government publication at the end of the fiscal year. It requires a holocaust of a score of lives amid lurid horrors to rouse us to the necessity of change.

The Russian revolution, then, will seemingly have to win its victories in the cities, the nerve centres of the Empire, most probably in St. Petersburg itself. To put it crudely, if revolution is the taking of power from those who hold it by those who have it not, it would seem obvious that for the seizure to take place the two parties must come into close contact. Since monarchs are only human, a revolver close to the head will secure concessions that a more distant menace would fail to extort. Louis XVI. across the border, or even at Lyons or Compiègne, would not have yielded what Louis XVI. at the Tuileries was compelled to give up. And a quarter of a million of peasants pillaging in Saratoff and Samara are a negligible quantity as compared to a mob of

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ten thousand men from the Putiloff iron works around the palace of Peterhof. There is no need to go to Berlin and Vienna in 1848-49, or to Paris repeatedly, for instances of what a city in arms may accomplish. The ancestor of Nicholas II., Michael Romanoff, owed his elevation to a national uprising under Minin and Pozharsky, which, by wresting Moscow from the Poles, shattered at one blow the foreign tyranny in Russia.

But though it would seem that the decisive battle between the people and the Government of Russia must be fought out in the cities, this does not at all mean that the peasants are a negligible factor in the present struggle. Said Nekrasoff: "Give the peasant a little more freedom to breathe, and he will show that Russia has men and a future." Revolutionary propaganda among the peasants pays because agrarian disorders, even if they are of secondary importance in themselves, are useful in drawing off an appreciable number of troops from the urban centres, and thus relieving the pressure at vital points. Rural propaganda also pays in that it infects with disloyalty those who in the course of time will carry the contamination with them into the ranks of the army. Thirdly (and this is due to the peculiar conditions of industry in Russia, where the peasant is so often an agriculturist in summer and a factory hand in winter), it is good tactics to preach the gospel of revolution in the open country uninterfered with by the police, and then to let the neophyte proceed to the cities to put revolutionary theory into practice. The peasant may bring about the fruition of Russian hopes, but he will be most likely to do it in the barracks or in the city streets.

THE IRISH DISTRESS.

No sooner had Parliament adjourned than the condition of Ireland once more began to figure largely in the English press. Early in August it became apparent that the potato crop in a number of counties was seriously menaced by the blight and by incessant rains. From Mayo on the west, Sligo, Roscommon, King's County, Queen's County, Kerry, Leitrim, and Tipperary in the south, was heard the same story of an apparently total failure of the crop, with starvation as the prospect. From all Connaught has come the official assertion that there will be no potatoes available after Christmas, and that the Government must be ready to provide work for thousands who will within a few months be destitute. In the East Kerry districts, grain crops and cereals of every kind have suffered; while from Carrick-on-Shannon and from Ulster come reports that the hay crops have been damaged by the flooding of hundreds of acres of low-lying lands.

To investigate for himself, the Chief Secretary for Ireland, James Bryce, is now travelling through the country. His mission, however, is not merely to ascertain Ireland's temporary needs, but to study her permanent economical wants. At Buncrana on Lough Swilly, for instance, his attention was called to the lack of pier accommodations. Although the place is an important military and naval port, and the centre of the largest herring-fishing industry, on one day $5,000 worth of herrings were thrown away for lack of piers. In such cases the appeal is always to London, just as at Portrush, where there is now a direct service to Glasgow, the local boards expect the British Government, through Mr. Bryce, to build a deep-water quay in order to develop the tourist traffic. Years of neglect and of maltreatment of Ireland are now bringing their punishment to England by forcing her to engage in all sorts of schemes, benevolent, paternalistic, even semi-socialistic, to rescue the remainder of the people from the fate of their immediate ancestors. But Mr. Bryce's movements have attracted no more attention than those of the party of eight Liberal members of Parliament, headed by Percy Alden, and a number of representatives of the Friends' Social Union, now investigating the long stretches of barren and waste lands on the west coast from Donegal to Galway. The object of these travellers is also to study economic conditions, and they have carefully avoided the greatly congested districts, since these are even now being studied by an able Royal Commission, of which Lord Dudley is chairman.

Out of all this investigating some good should surely come. Helpful as were the Wyndham Act of 1901 and the Irish Laborers' Act of the last session, much must be done before Ireland can really be regarded as prosperous. Almost the whole of Donegal, for instance, consists of "huge masses of granite, interspersed with peat bog, a wild, desolate region, where human life cannot be sustained from the land alone, even by unending labor and toil." Hence the Congested Districts Board has had to start up carpet factories and revive the lace industry and other home employments, such as the making of homespun tweeds. But as even in the factories a woman worker can earn only from $1.25 to $1.75 a week, the road to wealth is by no means easy. The fisheries are more promising, for Donegal County has 680 miles of coast and seas that fairly teem with fish. Thanks to Governmental guidance and aid, this trade is rapidly developing. In the twelve years from 1893 to 1905 the income of all the west coast fisheries has grown from $5,000 to $300,000 a year; of this the Donegal boats, supplied by the Congested Districts Board, earned $90,000. The Board has lent or sold seventy boats, with nets and gear, to crews of fishermen. The lack of adequate harbors and piers alone prevents the building up of a great industry, for the Donegal herrings are of the finest quality and are readily sold in New York, Russia, and Germany.

In Connemara, too, conditions are dark, although neither here nor in Donegal are they so bad as in the really congested districts. But Connemara, according to Mr. Alden, is also a "wilderness of granite and stone, the abomination of all desolations," where for miles and miles no family ever earns more than $60 a year from every source. Mr. Alden found the inhabitants in despair, so he writes to the London *Tribune*, for their holdings are unprofitable, their fisheries a failure, and their potato crop totally lost. In order to get any cheer, he had to turn to the work of the Government in breaking up great estates. For instance, the Congested Districts Board has purchased Clare Island, 6,000 acres in extent, for $25,000, and transformed the island from a "scene of lawlessness and discontent to one of peace and comparative prosperity." Where formerly periodical raids by the constabulary were necessary to obtain such rents as could be squeezed out of a reluctant and sullen people, the present collector reports that all of the Board's tenants pay regularly every penny asked of them.

Praiseworthy as all this relief work is, where does it eventually lead? Mr. Alden doubts whether Englishmen will be able to solve the Irish problem in a given time. The Dublin *Freeman's Journal*, which speaks for many high-minded Irishmen, rejoins to this:

> Can they hope to solve it at all? Is it possible; is it in the least degree necessary? Let it be understood that the Irish people make no such demand on English time. They do not hope that England will ever be able to thoroughly understand Ireland, will ever be able to legislate satisfactorily for the country, or administer the laws. The Irish demand is not that England shall govern them in this fashion or in that; it is merely that they may be allowed to govern themselves. What to the English people is, and always will be, the Irish problem, to the Irish is no problem at all. They understand the question, and are prepared to deal with it. They do not ask a helping hand, but a free hand.

Similar views are freely expressed in such prominent Liberal newspapers as the London *Daily News* and *Tribune*. The former, in a recent leader, expressly asserted that Irish government alone can be successful in Ireland, which must "develop her civilization along her own ways." Hence Irishmen and the friends of Ireland are everywhere looking forward to the measure of Home Rule which Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman is to propose at the next session of Parliament.

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CARNEGIE BRANCH

NAPOLEON THE LITTLE ONCE MORE.

There has recently been published in the *Monatshefte* and *Temps* a correspondence between Napoleon III., then a prisoner of war at Cassel, and the Countess Mercy-Argenteau, who undertook to intercede for the unfortunate monarch with the Kaiser. These letters reveal a curious detachment in the fallen Emperor, and a by no means strange incapacity to perceive the promise of the Provisional Government. The first letter of importance, dated February 4, 1871, is practically a personal appeal for clemency. He urges the Kaiser to show that "chivalric spirit" for which he is famous. Now that France is completely conquered, her interests combine with those of Germany. The mushroom National Assembly is incapable of carrying out the conditions of a peace. Naturally, the hero of the *coup d'état* is in favor of that tried expedient, a *plébiscite*. He writes to the countess:

> If I were in the place of the Emperor-King and the National Assembly should accept the peace terms, I would require the people to be consulted in order to establish a government strong enough to fulfil the stipulations. If, on the contrary, the Assembly should reject the peace, I would enter Paris at the head of my army; I would drive out the demagogues [the Communists] who have usurped the power, I would treat only with the legitimate government, and would offer it a peace less onerous than that offered the Assembly, and an alliance based on an equitable consideration of the interests of the two countries.

What these conditions should be the prisoner of Cassel does not venture to suggest, but he adds:

> Nothing is lacking to the glory of the Emperor-King except to make a truly great peace, and I mean by these words a peace which, instead of leaving ruin, despair, and anarchy as its sign, should cause the greatness of his character and the profundity of his political views to be recognized.

This admonition to the Kaiser through the granddaughter of Mme. Tallien was not quite so fatuous as it seems. Bismarck was nearly at his wits' end to find a Government to treat with. Only three months earlier, before Metz surrendered, he had been willing to recognize "not merely a Republic, but, if you will, a Gambetta dynasty, only that dynasty must give us a secure and advantageous peace"; this assured, any régime would do, "whether Bleichröder's or Rothschild's." At that time the great Chancellor had received Napoleon's emissary, Gen. Boyer, favorably, and had expressed a desire to negotiate with the Empress as Regent. Even later than this letter, Bismarck used the name of Napoleon to smother Thiers's appeals to Europe. "If you speak to me of Europe," said the Chancellor, "I will speak to you of Napoleon and of the 100,000 bayonets which, at a wink from us, would reseat him on his throne." "That must have made an impression on Thiers," Bismarck observed, "for the next time he felt inclined to talk of Europe he suddenly checked himself and said, 'I beg your pardon.'"

Whatever plausible illusions Napoleon may have cherished as to his residual importance, his letter made no impression on the Kaiser. The next communication to the countess contains nothing of note except a characteristic remark on a point of international etiquette: "The eagerness of the neutral Powers to recognize the kingship of M. Thiers is a proof of the little dignity that inspires foreign courts." The Tuileries, even in exile, still asserts a pretension to be considered an arbiter of elegancies. On February 25, 1871, the day before the peace protocol was signed at Versailles, Napoleon III. had evil presentiments. Things, he says, are taking a bad turn. The Orleanists must be reckoned with. The people cannot pardon him for having been "so ill-served and unfortunate."

News of the hateful bargain of Versailles shook the Imperial prisoner out of his egoism. In a letter of March 2, he discusses the matter in passionate terms, very like those which Jules Favre and Thiers used vainly in the negotiations with the implacable Bismarck. "It is no peace that the German Emperor has made; he is trying to kill us, and instead of reëstablishing peace, the treaty sows hatred and mistrust for the future." In words that have the weight of prophecy, Napoleon III. continues: "Is it well calculated, even for Germany? I do not think so. The present state of civilization in Europe brings nations together in such bonds of common interests that the ruin of one reacts upon all the others." He returns to his dogma that peace should have been made with a solid and legitimate Government—and this time probably he does not mean himself exclusively. To have drawn a peace accepted by all France would have been high politics. "Hatred of Germany would disappear as by enchantment, peace would be assured for many a year, confidence be restored, commerce would resume its expansion, and the German Emperor would gain much greater glory than he will acquire from the possession of Metz and Strasbourg."

In the subsequent correspondence from Napoleon's English retirement there is little but apathy and skepticism as to the fate of the Republic. The Countess abounds in suggestions, and receives merely thanks. He no longer writes to her, as in previous letters, "as if she were his Foreign Minister." He reminds her that they have to do with "pitiless characters." It is futile to work directly in France. "Everything must come about in its time," and one must look for some form of spontaneous Bonaparteism, though it seems "an audacious hope to concern one's self with the destinies of a people so frivolous as the French." Gradually the correspondence becomes terse and merely personal; a little before his death the Emperor writes: "I will not speak to you of politics, for it's a sad thing to see what is going on; but there is a kind of devotion that makes one forget both ingratitude and malice." His last word to her is, "The future still seems uncertain to me, clouds cover the horizon, and no clear sky is seen."

These letters add nothing new to political history, they do reveal a certain simplicity in the disillusioned Emperor, and present him in a more amiable light than is usually accorded him. Somewhat numbed by his calamities, his old self-infatuation becomes less offensive. If he can hardly imagine a France apart from himself, he at least shares her agony. Finally, he credits the victor with the sort of active benevolence that was so deeply mingled with his own self-seeking. He is perhaps less Napoleon the Little in these letters than he was in his overblown prosperity. In any case, he is hardly the ignoble ironist whom Victor Hugo had lacerated. There is room for curious reflection in the fact that it was Mme. Tallien's granddaughter who became the ardent partisan of Napoleon the Little in adversity. Her more famous ancestress was obstinately denied access to the court of Napoleon the Great. The case is almost an allegory of the compelling influence of the Napoleonic legend in France.

LITERATURE AND THE DOCTOR'S DEGREE.

It is related of Darwin that after a spell of hard work in his study he was wont to come out into the drawing room and rest on the sofa while listening to a novel read aloud. This anecdote may serve as a symbol not only of the scientific attitude toward literature, but of the place that literature is coming to occupy in life. The modern man reserves his serious energy for science or sociology or finance. What he looks for when he turns to pure literature is a soothing and mildly narcotic effect. Many people, of course, do not seek in books even the solace of their idle moments, but leave art and literature to women. "Poetry," as Lofty says, speaking for the men of business, "is a pretty thing enough for our wives and daughters, but not for us." In the coeducational institutions, especially the large universities of the Middle West, the men flock into the courses on science, the women affect the courses on literature. The man who took literature too seriously would be suspected of effeminacy. The really virile thing is to be an electrical engineer. One already foresees a time when the typical teacher of literature will be some young dilettante, who will interpret Keats and Shelley to a class of girls. As it is, the more vigorous and pushing teachers of language feel that they must assert their manhood by philo-

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logical research. At bottom, they agree with the scientist—and the dilettante—in seeing in literature, the source not of a law of life, but of more or less agreeable personal impressions.

This curious interplay of philology and impressionism runs through the whole of our language teaching, but is most visible perhaps in the teaching of English. At one extreme of the average English department is the philological mediævalist, who is grounded in Gothic and Old Norse and Anglo-Saxon; at the other extreme is the dilettante, who gives courses in "daily themes," and, like the sophists of old, instructs ingenuous youth in the art of expressing itself before it has anything to express.

Perhaps a majority of the more important chairs of ancient and modern literature in this country is already held by men whose whole preparation and achievement have been scientific rather than literary. This situation is on the face of it absurd, in some respects even scandalous. Yet the philological syndicate can scarcely be blamed for pushing forward men of its own kind; and the problem is in itself so difficult that one should sympathize with the perplexities of college presidents. The young doctor of philosophy has at least submitted to the discipline of facts and given evidence of some capacity for hard work. The dilettante has usually given evidence of nothing except perhaps a gentle epicureanism. Temperamental indolence and an aversion to accuracy have been known to disguise themselves as a love of literature; so that the college president is most often justified in his preference.

Yet it is this acceptance of the Ph.D. as proof of fitness for a chair of literature that is doing more than any one thing to dehumanize literary study, and fix on our colleges a philological despotism. The degree as now administered puts a premium, not on the man who has read widely and thought maturely, but on the man who has shown proficiency in research. It thus encourages the student to devote the time he still needs for general reading and reflection to straining after a premature "originality." Any plan for rehabilitating the humanities would therefore seem to turn on finding a substitute for the existing doctorate. What is wanted is a training that shall be literary, and at the same time free from suspicion of softness or relaxation, a degree that shall stand for a discipline in ideas, and not merely for a discipline in facts. Our language instruction needs to emphasize more than it is now doing the relationship between literature and thought if it is to be saved from Alexandrianism. Alexandria had scholars who were marvels of æsthetic refinement, and others who were wonders of philological industry. Yet Alexandrian scholarship deserves its doubtful repute because of its inability to vitalize either its æstheticism or its philology, because of its failure, on the whole, to make any vigorous and virile application of ideas to life. The final test of the scholar must be his power to penetrate his facts and dominate his impressions, and fuse them with the fire of a central purpose (*ergo vivida vis animi pervicit*). What is disquieting about our teachers of language is not any want of scientific method or æsthetic appreciativeness, but a certain incapacity for ideas. Some of our classical scholars have done distinguished work of a purely linguistic kind. A number of our scholars in the modern field have achieved eminence not only in linguistic work, but also in that investigation of literary history, which passes with many for literature itself. But we do not get from our teachers of the classics any equivalent of such writing as that of Professor Butcher in England or of M. Boissier in France—writing that should be almost the normal product of a humanistic scholarship; nor do our teachers of modern languages often attain to that union of finished form and mature generalization which is a common occurrence in the French doctor's thesis.

Our inferiority in this respect would seem due in some measure to the fact that with us a mature literary scholarship is not led up to and encouraged, as is the case in France and England, by an appropriate degree. Such distinctions as a First Class in an Oxford Honor School or the French *agrégation* would not in themselves be suited to our needs; but they at least illustrate how a degree that stands primarily for reading and assimilation may be made as severe and searching as a degree that stands primarily for research. If the general principle of such a degree were once accepted, its details could easily be adapted to our special requirements. Perhaps the desired end could best be accomplished by a comprehensive plan for graduate and undergraduate honors in literature. Graduate honors could be used to give the degree of A.M. the meaning it has hitherto lacked, and undergraduate honors to help restore to the degree of A. B. the meaning it is so rapidly losing. Graduate honors should not take more than two years and should hardly attempt to cover more than a single literature; but in that case they ought ordinarily to presuppose undergraduate honors which, like the new honors in literature at Harvard, correlate the ancient and modern fields. By being thus interrelated, the ancient languages will gain immensely in interest, and the modern languages in dignity. Aristotle and Plato should be used, as at Oxford and Cambridge, to give backbone to classical honors and make them a true discipline of ideas, but with greater attention to the modern foreground than is usually bestowed in England. A classical background, again, should, far more than a mediæval one, help the modern languages to develop standards and avoid a cheap contemporaneousness. From the lists of books read in schools and colleges and from publishers' catalogues one might infer that what is now taking the place of the masterpieces of Greece and Rome is a hodgepodge of second-rate French and German novels. Even the best judges are impressionists in dealing with contemporaries; so that from the teacher's point of view one is tempted to lay down the rule that the only good authors are dead authors.

Who can doubt that a French teacher who was thus widely read in the ancient and modern classics would be of more use to the average college than the man who had demonstrated his "originality" by collecting examples of the preposition in Old French from Godefroy's Dictionary? Or that the classical scholar who knew his Plato and Aristotle both in themselves and in their relation to the humane tradition of the world, would do more to advance his subject than the man who had devoted painful vigils to writing a thesis on the Uses of *dum, donec,* and *quoad*? The successful honor candidate would, like the French *agrégé* and unlike the American doctor, have been prepared directly for the work he would normally be expected to do; and then if he had a gift for research, he could, like the *agrégé,* cultivate this gift at leisure and at last publish something that might compare in maturity with the French doctoral dissertation.

For these and other reasons, a new degree would seem to be required as an alternative, if not as a substitute, for the present Ph.D.; a degree that would lay due stress on æsthetic appreciativeness and linguistic accuracy, but would insist above all on wide reading and the power to relate this reading so as to form the foundation for a disciplined judgment. There would then be some hope of our having humanists as well as philologists and dilettantes, and our literary instruction would be safeguarded from the dry rot of Alexandrianism.

IRVING BABBITT.

Harvard University.

FACSIMILES AND ORIGINALS.

Many facsimiles of rare books have been produced, and occasionally one of them is offered for sale as an original. Some two years ago a copy of Thomas J. Wise's type reprint, 1886, of the first edition of Robert Browning's "Pauline," 1833, was thus put on the market. The covers had been pulled off, and Mr. Wise's title and prefatory matter removed, as well as the last leaf at the end, which contains the imprint and date. The price was, if we remember rightly, $600; cheap enough for an original, but too large a sum for the most inexpert collector to risk on the smallest chance of the book's not being genuine. The reprint was not done by photography, but the types are almost identical with those of the original, and the reprint is very accurate, even to the spacing of words and lines. The headlines and signature marks are in a type noticeably larger than in the original; and there is a slight difference in the position of the signature mark "B" on page 25. In the original this letter is below the last two letters of the word "those" in the line above; in the reprint the signature mark is nearer the outer margin, entirely to the right of the last letter of "those."

The first edition of Richard Hakluyt's great collection of Voyages was published in 1589, in one volume folio. In 1598 appeared the first volume of the revised and enlarged edition, the other two volumes of which appeared in 1599 and 1600. As first issued, the title-page of vol. i is dated 1598, and the volume ends with page 619. Most copies are, however, dated 1599, and contain 606 pages only. The 1598 title contains an additional sentence "and the famous victorie achieved at the citie of Cadiz, 1596, are described," which was omitted from the reprinted title. The omitted pages, 607 to 619, tell of the capture of

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Cadiz by the expedition under the Earl of Essex. In 1599, when Essex had fallen into disfavor with Queen Elizabeth, this account of the Cadiz expedition, which was largely laudation of Essex, was ordered suppressed. Probably shortly after 1800 a reprint was made of this suppressed voyage, and this reprint is found in many copies, and is frequently offered and sold as the original suppressed leaves. The reprint, however, is not accurate, and is easily distinguished. The original ends on page 619, with a wood cut, page 620 being blank. The reprint goes over to page 620, and has no cut at the end. The fact that the reprint has seven paragraphs on page 607, while the original has eight, is another distinguishing point.

An anonymous play, "The Tragedie of Solimon and Perseda," 1599, the authorship of which has been attributed to Thomas Kyd and to Robert Greene, was reprinted by Smeeton about 1810. The reprint is very accurate, and the book, found as it is likely to be now in old binding, might deceive any one not familiar with the fact that such a reprint was issued. Indeed, a copy of the reprint brought $180 in the third McKee sale, in 1901. It was returned by the purchaser, and when resold last season the identical volume brought only a dollar or two. The British Museum has four varieties of the original, distinguished by minute peculiarities.

Correspondence.

SYMPATHY FOR ANIMALS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I cannot understand how people who have the luck of living in the twentieth century still confuse the Bible as it was written with the Bible as it is preached about. There is not a word of sympathy for animals, either in the Old or in the New Testament, and Pio Nono was perfectly right, from his point of view, when he withheld from becoming a member of a society for prevention of cruelty to animals. *All* the passages from the Bible quoted by your recent correspondents refer to *superstitious fears*, in particular to the *taboos* about evil days, mixtures and the like. If your oxen are not to work on the Sabbath, it is because that day is a *dangerous* one (just as the 13th in modern superstition); they might get wounded or ill. Don't yoke an ass with an ox, because certain mixtures are *dangerous*, for instance the mixture of different seeds in the same field (Leviticus, xix, 19). Allow your ox to eat the corn which he is threshing, because in doing so the beast *takes the danger off* from the new corn (cf. Leviticus xix. 23, about uncircumcised fruit).

The Greek philosophy of the sixth century, like Pythagoras, had no more sympathy for animals than the Jews, but they were *afraid* of them, fearing to injure a man whose soul might have transmigrated in the body of a dog: *Primus . . . fecit timor.*

Only prejudice, ignorance or *mala fides* can pretend to discover morality under the veil of superstition; as well say, you see the chicken in the egg. Morality, cleanliness, hygiene and many other good things evolved from raw and stupid superstition, by the simple process of selection, by the falling off of the purely superstitious and the retaining or remodelling of what chanced to be in conformity with the higher interests or moral tendencies of mankind.

Salomon Reinach.

Musée de Saint-Germain, Paris, September 1.

TEACHING LITERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I venture to comment on your editorial of September 13, "Literary Teaching vs. Teaching Literature." I imagine most college teachers of English will heartily agree with you that literature is "a subject that possibly cannot, in the ordinary sense, be taught." "Teaching literature," "teaching Shakspere"—do not the phrases themselves have a sound of absurdity? I met a man who declared he was "teaching Dante," and set him down as a charlatan. Facts and principles, English grammar and English composition, can be taught directly; the appreciation and enjoyment of literature can be induced only by indirection.

However it may be at Oxford, there is doubtless room for missionary work, not only in our schools, but in our American colleges. And fortunately our colleges have their evangelists. One well-known professor has for years spread the gospel mainly by reading aloud to large classes, the reading constituting an interpretation and an inspiration. But it is doubtful if the teaching of English, in the sense of inducing appreciation, has in strictness any place in collegiate instruction. A college may well teach the history of the English drama without trying to arouse dramatic appreciation by producing Shakspere's plays or giving credit for attendance at the theatre; just as it may teach political economy, the science of wealth, without having anything to do with the actual appreciation and enjoyment of money. The appreciation and enjoyment of literature are matters extra-academic and belonging to the home; the teacher of English (except as he is a missionary) will presuppose them; he has theoretically no more to do with them than the teacher of political economy has to do with goods in the concrete.

What, then, is the business of the teacher of English literature? In the first place there is the history of literature. College students study political history and the history of philosophy. Why not also the history of literature? Who will say that the literary history—for instance of the period of Queen Anne—is less valuable, or less interesting, or has less "disciplinary basis," than the political history of the same time? Again, there is the theory or (in the broad sense) science of literature, viz., criticism. Who will say that while all other matters, above and under the earth, are made the subject of scientific study, literature should be neglected? Literature for the colleges is one of these two things—literary history or literary criticism. With these two fields properly open to it, why should the collegiate teaching of English have "a supererogatory look"?

And from these studies, as well as from the study of foreign languages—perhaps for many students better than from the study of foreign languages—literary appreciation may come as a by-product. It will come inevitably in proportion to the culture and the enthusiasm of the teacher. Let the teacher go ahead with his proper subjects and the problem of inducing appreciation will, as far as may be, take care of itself. Thus already, I believe, do many college teachers of English by indirection find direction out.

F. C. Prescott.

Ithaca, N. Y., September 15.

WHY CLERKS WILL NOT EXPOSE EMPLOYERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The resolution of the Institute of Bank Clerks, noted on page 214 of your issue of September 13, is eminently proper as an academic maxim, and as Bacon says, "for reformation's sake fit"; but every member must have voted for it with his moral tongue in his cheek. I mean no cheap cynicism or pessimism, but a serious and regretful acceptance of obvious fact, in saying that the laws of business evolution tend steadily to make it impossible for subordinates to interfere effectively with their superiors' management, for good or evil, without drawing heavy monitory punishment on themselves, while effecting no provable good to the business.

As to the latter clause, the exposure must be made either before the mismanagement or corruption has become ruinous, or after it. If the former, the chief, who *ex hypothesi* has a large business repute and connection, and whose word will be believed by the whole mass of the business world against the unreputed clerk, will simply deny that there was any danger. At most, he may have made some mistakes in judgment, perhaps broken some technical rules for the sake of profiting his company, but without wrongful intent, but he will thereafter conform to the regulations, etc., etc. The business world will hold the "exposure" to be at best great cry and little wool, and most likely inspired by malice, disappointment, intrigue, or folly; and the clerk may as well resign himself to a new career outside that trade. The very ones benefited by the clean-up will dislike him for disturbing business; the most honest heads or directors will think a business rebel not a desirable subordinate. For one reason or another, there is no new place within the branch which the clerk has learned, the only one he is trained for, and in perhaps middle age the only one he can well acquire. This is the reward of honest courage; and it is no fancy sketch, as any one conversant with business must know, and would be much oftener reminded of did not the mass of subordinates appreciate it before action.

On the other hand, if the exposer waits till the impending ruin is certain, and he cannot be accused of discovering mares' nests, the case is far worse. The only good he accomplishes is to prevent a few more innocents being deluded before the crash comes; and he will gain no credit even for that. A chorus of denunciation and contempt will arise—many and many a time has arisen: "If you knew the danger, why didn't you make it known earlier? Why did you leave so many honest people to

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be drawn in and ruined? It is perfectly evident that what ails you is not conscience, but funk. You waited as long as there was anything for you to get out of it, and only peeped when you saw that your position was as good as gone, and you could earn a little cheap credit for exposing what was bound to expose itself very shortly." Equally he is hated and dropped.

I know the very small handful of exceptions to this, where clerks or department heads of unusual strength and opportunity have managed to obtain newspaper or official support. I also know others where that support has ranged itself unanimously on the side of the ill-conducted head; one where the State's appointed guardian went straight to the accused head and told him every word of the clerk's confidential information, and took the magnate's word that it was all false, without examining the documents or consulting parties in adverse interest. In a word, the reason why few subordinates will ever check their official heads, even out of loyalty to the interests the employer is betraying, is because in its own possible interest the business clan-family will always ban and punish such a course. CREDE EXPERTO.

Hartford, Conn., September 15.

Notes.

From the large and interesting list of books announced by the Macmillan Company for this autumn we select the following: "The Earth's Bounty," by Kate V. Saint Maur; "Salmon Fishing," by W. Earl Hodgson; "Baseball and Football," by John Ward and Ralph D. Paine; "Skating, Ice-Yachting, and Skate-Sailing," by Archibald Rogers and Daniel C. Beard; "Highways and Byways of the Mississippi Valley," by Clifton Johnson; "Tarry at Home Travels," by Edward Everett Hale; "Persia Past and Present," by A. V. Williams Jackson; "The Fair Hills of Ireland," by Stephen Gwynn; "A Wanderer in London," by E. V. Lucas; "Charleston," by Mrs. St. Julien Ravenel; "History of Modern Painting," revised edition, by Richard Muther; "Reminiscences of Henry Irving," by Bram Stoker; "Life, Letters, and Art of Lord Leighton," by Mrs. Russell Barrington; "Eugénie, Empress of the French," by Clara Tschudi; "Mrs. Gaskell," by Clement Shorter; "Charles Kingsley," by G. K. Chesterton, and "Shakespeare," by Walter Raleigh, in the English Men of Letters Series; "A History of the United States," vols. vi. and vii., by James Ford Rhodes; "A History of the United States," vol. ii., by Edward Channing; "A History of Rome in the Middle Ages," vol. i., by F. Marion Crawford and Giuseppe Tomassetti; "A History of Modern England," vol. v., by Herbert Paul; "A History of the Inquisition of Spain," vol. ii., by Henry Charles Lea; "Letters of William Pitt, Lord Chatham; "The Cambridge Modern History," vol. iv., "The Thirty Years' War"; "An Introduction to the English Historians," by Charles A. Beard; "The German Empire," by Burt Estes Howard; "Poems," by Alfred Noyes; "Poems and Plays," complete, by W. B. Yeats; "Jeanne d'Arc" and "Sapho and Phaon," by Percy Mackaye; "The Toast of the Town" and "Her Own Way," by Clyde Fitch; "A Sailor's Garland," collected by John Masefield; "English Literature, from the Norman Conquest to Chaucer," by William Henry Schofield; "The Development of Shakespeare as a Dramatist," by George P. Baker; "The International Law and Diplomacy of the Russo-Japanese War," by A. S. Hershey; "The Nature of Capital and Income," by Irving Fisher; "Readings in Descriptive and Historical Sociology," by Franklin H. Giddings; "Text-Book of Economics," by John Bates Clark; "Newer Ideals of Peace," by Jane Addams; "Life in the Homeric Age," by Thomas Day Seymour; "The Art of the Greeks," by H. B. Walters; "Life in Ancient Athens," by T. G. Tucker; "An Introduction to Philosophy," by George Stuart Fullerton; "The Modern Pulpit," by Lewis O. Brastow; "The Christian Doctrine of Atonement," by R. J. Campbell; "The Seeming Unreality of the Spiritual Life," by Henry Churchill King; "Concepts of Philosophy," by Alexander Thomas Ormond.

James Pott & Co. anounce the following illustrated books as ready for publication: "The Pageant of London," by Richard Davey; "Algiers," by M. Elizabeth Crouse; "The Cathedrals of England and Wales," and "The Cathedrals and Churches of the Rhine and North Germany," by T. Francis Bumpus; "India," by Pierre Loti; "Some Literary Eccentrics," by John Fyvie; "By the Waters of Carthage," by Norma Lorimer; "Fire and Sword in the Caucasus," by Luigi Villari, and "Cheer Up," by Charles Battell Loomis.

Funk & Wagnalls will soon have the following books ready: "The Incubator Baby," by Ellis Parker Butler; "Under Pontius Pilate," by William Schuyler; "In London Town," by F. Berkeley Smith, and "Miserère," by Mabel Wagnalls.

To their Thin Paper Classics Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. are adding Boswell's "Johnson," Carlyle's "French Revolution," and "Don Quixote." Complete editions of Burns, Keats, Scott, and Shelley are also to be included.

Little, Brown & Co. will publish next month "The Dragon Painter," a story of Japan by Mary McNeil Fenollosa, who is also announced as "Sidney McCall," the author of "Truth Dexter" and "The Breath of the Gods."

Next week Doubleday, Page & Co. will bring out "Inventors at Work," by George Iles. An elaborate work in the press of the same firm is "Fighting the Polar Ice," which gives the story of Anthony Fiala's Arctic expedition.

Prof. James H. Hyslop is adding to his other works on "the scientific investigation of the supernatural" a third volume to be called "Borderland of Psychical Research." It will be published this autumn by Herbert B. Turner & Co.

H. Ripley Cromarsh, who is none other than the sister of A. Conan Doyle, has written a detective story to be published by Small, Maynard & Co., under the title of "The Secret of the Moor Cottage."

Duffield & Co. have made George Brandes's essay "On Reading" into a neatly printed little volume.

Mitchell Kennerley is publishing a reprint of Alexander Smith's "Dreamthorp," with memoir and portrait. He is also preparing "Anactoria and other Lyrical Poems," chosen from Swinburne's works.

Three volumes of "The Cambridge History of English Literature" are promised for publication next year. They will cover these periods: "From the Origins to Chaucer," "From Chaucer to the Renaissance," and "Elizabethan Poetry and Prose."

The Hertfordshire County Council is engaged in calendaring the documents in its possession illustrating the history (social, ecclesiastical and political), the topography, and the genealogy of the county. The calendar is now issued in two parts with preface and full index of the "Session Rolls, 1561 to 1850." This work (price 15s. the volume) has been compiled and edited by W. J. Hardy, Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, and can be obtained from any of the London booksellers.

"A Child's Recollections of Tennyson" (E. P. Dutton & Co.), by Edith Nicholl Ellison, turns out to be more concerned with Tennyson's children, Hallam and Lionel, than with the poet himself. Mrs. Ellison and her sister were playmates of the boys at Farringford, and saw much of them in later years, especially at Marlborough, where the girls' father was master of the school to which the boys were sent. Tennyson himself was a frequent and honored guest at the master's house. Certain rooms were reserved for his use, and his special coffee cup and saucer were kept under a glass case so that no one else might drink out of them. He would read his poems to the older class, but to the writer of these reminiscences, at least, the lecture was far from edifying. "A great deal of praise," she says, "has been bestowed upon these readings, but I have to speak of them as we young ones found them, and I am sorry to say they seemed to us rather uncomfortable performances. We were accustomed to the musical cadences of our father's voice, whose reading, not only of poetry, but of the Bible's grand prose, was unique, and when the poet read I really must confess that we thought he was shy, as we heard little but mutterings and grumblings into his straggly beard."

"Picturesque Brittany," by Mrs. Arthur Bell, illustrated by Arthur G. Bell, is a favorable specimen of its type, the book of travel illustrated with water-color drawings reproduced in color. The text is agreeably written, and the pictures, which are the real *raison d'être* of the volume, are sober, truthful, and sufficiently able, and are without any of those extravagances of color that have grown, of late, somewhat too familiar. It is published by Dent in London and by Dutton in New York.

A new volume in the American State Series (Century Co.) is entitled "Local Government in Counties, Towns, and Villages," and comes fairly up to the title. The author, John A. Fairlie, deals with such matters as county officers, police, and justices; the town in New England, in the South and in the West; public education, charities, public health, and local finance, in a manner suited to the large mass of readers who approach such a subject neither as lawyers nor as philosophers. In other words, he gives a careful and businesslike presentation for the general

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reader or the young person who wants to get the subject up for a college course. But he does not give us, nor does he pretend to give, on the one hand, a manual that would assist the practising lawyer, or, on the other, any of those informed and deeply reasoned summings up of the tendencies of an age and people that attach permanent value to a book. When on such pregnant topics as the tendency to centralization, to State supervision, etc., the author obviously feels out of his depth, and hastens on to safer, that is, to more statistical, ground.

Two recent additions to the literature of cotton are the result of observations in North Carolina, the State which, above all the others, presents the most striking changes wrought by bringing the mill to the scene of production. Holland Thompson's "From the Cotton Field to the Cotton Mill" (Macmillan) is a frank picture of the mill towns and their people. In that scarcely perceptible immigration, in which nearly 200,000 persons were transferred from the farm to the towns and villages, many new problems naturally were involved: old prejudices were weakened, ideals of success were transformed, and the negro was directly affected. With the ugly problem of child labor, the author deals at some length, taking issue with the accounts of "investigators" as overdrawn and unreasonable. Certain sweeping indictments against the atmosphere of the mills and the morality of the operatives Mr. Thompson finds altogether unfounded. A carefully prepared appendix gives an interesting comparison of the cost of living in the representative mill towns of Massachusetts and North Carolina, in which there appears to be a decided difference in favor of the Southern communities. "Cotton," by Charles W. Burkett (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is primarily a text book of cotton culture, though it deals with the marketing and manufacture of the staple. Much valuable information is conveyed in an interesting way, and if it be true, as is often claimed, that the methods of American cotton growing are the loosest and least practical in all agriculture, this book will doubtless fill an important place in the "Farm Library" of which it is a part.

Two volumes have now been published of the new edition of C. P. Lucas's "Historical Geography of the British Colonies" (Oxford: The Clarendon Press). The first of these has been edited and brought up to date by R. E. Stubbs, B.A., and the second by C. Atchley. A colonial geography, which is the joint work of these three men, must at once command attention and win confidence; for no men could be better placed for the work. C. P. Lucas has been under-secretary of state in the Colonial Office at Whitehall, in which R. E. Stubbs also holds a position, while C. Atchley is librarian to the Colonial Office, and has consequently unusual facilities in regard to all literature bearing on England's Colonial Empire. Mr. Lucas's Colonial Geography has already had some fifteen years of usefulness; and if it was to remain the authority on British Imperial possessions a thorough revision was necessary. So far as regards the two volumes that have now appeared, the work of revision has been satisfactorily accomplished, and the historical sketches of the colonies included have been brought down to 1905. None of the great self-governing colonies is included in either of these volumes; nor is the greatest of the British Crown colonies—India. The first volume begins with Gibraltar, and travels through the Mediterranean by way of Malta and Cyprus to the Asiatic islands of the Far East. Except for the three European possessions and Somaliland in Africa, the book deals exclusively with the islands in the Indian Ocean and the minor Asiatic possessions. The second volume deals with the West Indies, the Bermudas in the North Atlantic, and the Falkland Islands and South Georgia, at the extreme end of South America. Both volumes are well indexed, and at the end of each section is given a full bibliography of the books bearing on each island or colony. When the remaining volumes appear in their revised condition, the "Historical Geography of the British Colonies" will form, at any rate for a few years to come, the standard encyclopedia of the British Empire.

The senior bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church, the Rev. Dr. D. S. Tuttle of the diocese of Missouri, in a candid and often naïve way has disclosed those attributes of his personality and conceptions of the functions of his office which have made him effective as bishop since 1866, in extending the bounds of his church and in helping commonwealths to ethical ideals in Utah, Montana and Idaho. Never in the popular mind a hero, as was Bishop Whipple by his service for the Red Men, and practically indifferent, as this book ("Reminiscences of a Missionary Bishop," Thomas Whittaker) shows, to all problems of polity, ritual, or theology within the Episcopal fold—Anglican or Roman—Bishop Tuttle consecrated twenty years of his life to patient, unheralded, pioneer service among Mormons, miners, stage drivers, business men and the heterogeneous population of early Western communities. There his physical prowess as an athlete and his ability to discriminate between sin and the sinner made him astonishingly skilful in dealing with situations and with elements of population which would have driven the ordinary parson back East. This partial autobiography is a record of episcopal activity and human intercourse, such as only a Western American bishop could have written. Mingled with its rambling record of thrilling physical adventure, ecclesiastical financiering, and human rescue-work, there are homilies on aspects of the pastoral and episcopal life which will have their lesson for the younger clergy. As he has seen much of Mormonism. Bishop Tuttle's chapter on that religion and system of plural marriage has distinct value. He is less severe as to the past and more hopeful as to the future than many non-Mormon ecclesiastics have been.

Research in English manuscript collections has enabled Champlin Burrage, a fellow of Newton Theological Seminary, to find several hitherto unknown or lost writings of Robert Browne, on whom British and American Congregationalists rightly look as the first Englishman to define and suffer for the principles of the Independent or Congregational church polity. The pamphlet ("The True Story of Robert Browne," Henry Frowde), giving the young Baptist scholar's interpretation of Browne's reversion to the Church of England; and correcting some major and minor errors into which earlier writers—notably Dexter—on Browne were led, for lack of documents and because of partisanship, has the merit of modesty in tone and of brevity and clearness in method. There is sufficient quotation from new MSS. to reveal Browne's argument against both Presbyterians and Anglicans as well as his bluntness and intensity in controversy. That Browne was either mentally unbalanced or full of duplicity when he returned to the Episcopal fold, Mr. Burrage doubts, though there is adequate recognition of the pathos of his last days and the difficulty which confronts the believer in Congregationalism, who would make him out altogether a hero. The principles Browne laid down for his followers have not lost worth during the subsequent development of church polity, as the growing rights of laymen and congregations even under Episcopacy prove.

In the third volume of his "Biographic Clinics" (P. Blackiston's Son & Co.) Dr. George M. Gould has brought together several more of his essays bearing on the influence of even slight errors of refraction upon the general health. Among them are studies of the visual defects of Symonds and Taine. The conclusions in the case of Symonds will hardly seem convincing to those who are familiar with the details of his life. There are also essays on the relation of posture in writing to vision, which are most interesting reading. The author's attitude toward his critics, his resentment of the very general doubt of the conclusions of his earlier volumes on these subjects, and a certain harshness in presenting his material will much delay the conversion of those professional brethren, and there are very many of them, who find his theories rather too finely drawn to be acceptable.

Lord Amherst is selling, through Bernard Quaritch, the rarer books in his collection. Among other treasures there are seventeen Caxtons and De Wordes, including what is believed to be the only genuine and perfect copy in existence of the Lefevre, the first book printed in the English language. Those volumes marked P in the list are perfect:

Lefevre, "Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye," 1474? P.
Cessolis, "Game of Chesse," 1475? P.
Christine de Pisan, "Morale Proverbes," 1478.
Boccius, "De Consolatione Philosophiæ," 1478-9? P.
"Mirrour of the World," 1481. P.
"Tulle of Old Age," 1481. P.
"Godfrey of Boloyne," 1481. P.
Higden, "Polycronicon," 1482.
Voraigne, "Golden Legend," 1st edition, 1484.
Voraigne, "Golden Legend," 2nd edition, 1487?
Christan de Pisan, "Fayites of Armes," 1489. P.
Virgil, "Eneydos," 1490. P.
"Four Sermons," 2nd edition, 1491.
"Chastysing of Goddes Chyldern," 1491. P.
"Treatyse of Love," 1493. P.
Voraigne, "Golden Legend," 3rd edition, 1493.

Through the death of Otto Mühlbrecht, the head of the well-known house of Puttkammer & Mühlbrecht in Berlin, the German book trade has lost one of its most conspicuous members. Born in Braunschweig, he entered a book store in that city in 1853; in 1858 he started out on his *Wanderjahre* and spent some years in Göttingen, Kiel, and Elberfeld, until in 1862 he obtained a place in an importing house in Amsterdam. Later he returned

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to Germany, worked a couple of years with T. O. Weigel, in Leipzig, and in 1868 he and Albert Puttkammer founded the "Buchhandlung für Staats und Rechtswissenschaft," which bears their name. Mühlbrecht had early tried his hand on bibliographical work, and in 1866 published a bio-bibliographical sketch of Beethoven. As bibliographer he should be well known both in and outside the trade, through his *Uebersicht der gesammten Staats- und Rechtswissenschaftlichen Litteratur*, which he has edited and published in annual volumes since 1867, and through the "Wegweiser durch die neuere Litteratur der Staats- und Rechtswissenschaften," first published in 1885, and followed by a second volume in 1901. Mühlbrecht was a diligent contributor to the *Börsenblatt für den deutschen Buchhandel* as well as to a number of literary journals. In 1898 he published a short autobiographical sketch.

An interesting and instructive yearbook, "Biographisches Jahrbuch und Deutscher Nekrolog," is edited by Dr. Anton Bettelheim of Vienna. The ninth volume, just published by Reimer in Berlin, contains biographies of distinguished Germans, who died in 1904. One of the fullest and most important of these contributions is the life of the historian, Theodor Mommsen, by L. M. Hartmann, an attractive and thoroughly authentic work, based on hitherto inaccessible material furnished by the family. Worthy of mention also are accounts of the life and achievements of the scientist, Friedrich Ratzel, by Viktor Hantzsch, of Herbert Bismarck and General Waldersee, by Hugo Jacobi, and especially of the Munich painter, Lenbach, by Hyazinth Holland. Unfortunately, the necrology for 1904 was not completed in time for publication in this volume, but will be printed together with that of 1905 in volume x., which will be issued during the present year.

Anatole France's new book, "Vers les Temps Meilleurs" (The Good Time Coming), is a collection of various papers already published. It marks his final conversion on many points, due to the Affaire Dreyfus, in which he took so passionate an interest. He is quite won over to Socialism in its most collectivist sense; and his eulogy of Zola's "J'accuse" is as extreme on one side as his criticism of twenty years ago was severe, on the other, in declaring that better Zola had not been born than be a purveyor of naturalist filth. Much of the charm of style remains, but the vengeful sharpness of the controversy will not hold those who were hitherto drawn by the author's mere literature, very perfect and very Renanian in its Olympian indifference. Another Academician who has become more reasoning with age is Paul Bourget. His studies in Sociology and Literature are also reprints of these later years, which have worked in their author just the contrary conversion of that of Anatole France. The sociology is that of Le Play, with a vigorous political tang from Bonald and Joseph de Maistre. For Paul Bourget, past fifty, is firm monarchist in behalf of the much discussed French *bourgeois*, just as Anatole France, past sixty, is collectivist in hatred and derision of him. The literature is good and heavy.

To the numerous authentic contributions to the history of the fall of Napoleon the Third's empire, started up by the recent visit of Empress Eugénie to Emperor Francis Joseph, should by all means be added "La Défense Nationale," by Henri Genevois. The author is a friend of Ranc and Gambetta; and it is undoubtedly their views which he presents in a matter where they have been accused of sacrificing the interests of France to those of their own republic. His general conclusion is that "our defeat did not have its origin in irremediable organic decay, but it was the result of external circumstances which were contingent and reparable."

The death at Tangiers of M. Salmon, head of the French Scientific Mission in Morocco, draws attention to the prodigious amount of work accomplished by him within three years. He was barely twenty-eight years old, and was one of the students of Arabic at the Cairo Institute. The mission under his direction has already published seven volumes of translations and memoirs, mostly due to M. Salmon's own work. He had just made an investigating trip to Fez, where he managed to secure some eighty "lithographed" Arabic works—practically all that date from that city. Most of them were unknown until now. He also discovered an encyclopedia of Moroccan Law in twenty volumes, comprising the jurisprudence of the Cadis, municipal customaries, and corporation regulations. When it is remembered that the civilization of Morocco has waned but slowly from that of the Moors in Spain, the possible importance of all this literature of Islam may easily be surmised. The Scientific Mission will take charge of the complete publication.

Any addition is welcome to the small store of books in English dealing with Muhammadan law. It is doubly welcome when it deals with the work of so significant, and yet so little known a jurist as Ibn Abi Zaid, the Malikite, and when it prints a careful Arabic text with translation and commentary. In giving a text in his "First Steps in Muslim Jurisprudence" (Luzac & Co.: London), A. D. Russell, who is chief magistrate of the Colony of the Gambia, has probably had no predecessor among English scholars until Sir William Jones is reached, who published in copper-plate a treatise on inheritance in the late eighteenth century in India. His book will certainly be very useful, for Muslim, like Roman law, can really be learned only in its original tongue. It is curious, however, to notice that in the Colony of the Gambia and extreme West Africa generally, the sections dealing with slavery are no longer of any importance, and are not given here. It is different farther east in Nigeria. There, to the personal knowledge of the present reviewer, the student and the administrator must still take account of the law of manumission. Mr. Russell has done his legal work very carefully, but his introduction on the early history and sources of Muslim law is hardly adequate. He should notice, too, that a *bid'a*, "innovation," is not necessarily heretical; a theologian may even speak of a praiseworthy *bid'a*. Some mention might also have been in place of the use made of this same text by Vincent, in his "Études sur la loi musulmane."

The blind and deaf special report of the Census Bureau, prepared under the direction of Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, is a remarkable production. Not only does it give the customary statistics, but it adds much well-considered information in regard to the facts collected. It also has this peculiar merit, which adds greatly to its value and accuracy, that the material has been collected mainly by direct correspondence with the individuals. In sixty-four tables are given among other things the number in each State, the age at which they became blind or deaf, the cause, disease or inheritance, the school attendance, in the deaf the ability to speak, and the present occupations. It is interesting to note that a large number of the blind are musicians or music teachers, while agricultural pursuits are the principal employment of the deaf. Apparently deafness is decreasing in the country, while the number of deaf and dumb per million of the population has fallen since 1890 from 648 to 321. Infant schools for the deaf, receiving pupils as young as three or even two years of age, have been established recently for the purpose of teaching the children to talk.

A remarkable career was closed by the death of the Rev. George Matheson on August 28, at the age of sixty-four. The son of a Glasgow merchant, he became blind when a youth, but nevertheless pursued his studies and graduated from Glasgow University with honors in classics, logic, and philosophy, and with a prize for an essay on Socratic dialogue. Then he entered the ministry and soon was recognized as the greatest preacher in the Scottish Church since Dr. Caird. He declined a call to succeed the celebrated Dr. Cumming in London, and settled over an Edinburgh church, whose pastorate he resigned in 1899. He was distinguished as a hymn writer and contributor to leading English and American periodicals. His published works number at least twenty-two, of which the first, "Aid to the Study of German Theology," appeared in 1874, and the last, "The Representative Men of the New Testament," in 1905. His "Spiritual Development of St. Paul," which has reached several editions, has been translated into the Chinese.

The celebration by the ninety-three-year-old Prof. Eduard Zeller of the seventieth anniversary of his promotion to the doctors' degree, simultaneously with the retirement of the eighty-two-year-old Prof. Kuno Fischer from Heidelberg University, and the completion of his seventieth year by Prof. Johannes Ranke, once more suggests the probability that brain work is conducive to longevity. The youngest of the three, Professor Ranke, is best known to the general public by his book, "Der Mensch," of which Virchow said that Germany ought to pride herself on having produced it. He established his fame first as physiologist, then as anthropologist, and it was due to him that anthropology was represented by a special chair at the University of Munich, and placed on a level with other branches of science. Kuno Fischer has been for over three decades the most popular professor at Heidelberg. His knowledge, imagination, and eloquence enabled him to make a lecture on a dry metaphysical problem so interesting that the students would applaud as at a play or a political address. As for Zeller, all the

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honors that can come to a schalar have been bestowed on him. He has been made honorary doctor of all four faculties in succession by the Universities of Heidelberg, Tübingen, Edinburgh, and Marburg. Among the friends of his youth were Ludwig Uhland, Fredrich Vischer, and David Friedrich Strauss. He began his career as a theologian, and stands at the head of historians of Greek philosophy, as Kuno Fischer does of historians of German philosophy.

The school editions of Cæsar's Commentaries had, perhaps still have, hypothetical designs of the engineering works at the siege of Alesia; and there is a model in wood and plaster at the French National Museum of Saint-Germain. The site had been identified etymologically with the modern Alise, against the will of a few crabbed scholars. Important excavations have been begun at the place, on Mount Auxois, under the direction of Major Espérandieu of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, following out a plan of State Engineer Fornerot. Considerable discoveries have already been made, the most surprising of which is the number of public monuments built there by the Romans, after the conquest. This is quite the contrary of their forcing the conquered Gauls to evacuate the *oppida* of Bibracte and Gergovia. It is thought that Alesia, from prehistoric times, must have been a religious centre with a market, so that the Romans chose to multiply in it buildings sacred and profane for the better control of the natives of the whole country. What seems to have been a Forum is a square, fifty yards to a side, with apses on three of the sides, dating apparently from the time of Augustus. A bas-relief of a Dioscurus was found in the ruins. The wholesale destruction of Alesia seems due to the troubles preceding the advent of Vespasian.

A DISPERSER OF MEDIÆVAL GLAMOUR.

From St. Francis to Dante. A Translation of all that is of Primary Interest in the Chronicle of the Franciscan Salimbene (1221-1288); together with Notes and Illustrations from Other Mediæval Sources. By G. G. Coulton, M.A. London: David Nutt.

Mr. Coulton has produced an important book. To put Fra Salimbene's Chronicle in intelligible form before English readers, is well; because it belongs with the "Fioretti" of St. Francis and Joinville's "Life of St. Louis" among the most intimate human documents of the thirteenth century. But Mr. Coulton has done more than this; he has made Salimbene the touchstone by which to test the manners, morals, and ideals of that time. His work serves as a most wholesome corrective to the prevalent unhistorical glorification of the age of St. Francis. We have heard much of the "Ages of Faith," of the "spirit that built cathedrals." The early Romanticists painted the martial and feudal pageantry of the mediæval world. Then as the modern scientific spirit began to act as a solvent for old religions and superstitions, the religious conservatives turned back with pathetic anxiety to find in the Middle Age conditions amid which they themselves might feel at home. England had its crop of Tractarians and Pre-Raphaelites, and its revival of ritualism and brotherhoods. Even Ruskin gave great aid, though indirectly, to the movement. The Roman Church under Pius IX. could account for the unbridgeable chasm which had opened between its dogmas and the proved knowledge of the modern world only by condemning—in the Syllabus of 1864—modern knowledge and progress. Twenty years later Leo XIII. urged Christendom, if it would be saved, to return to the simplicity and faith of the thirteenth century. Latterly, there has been a renewed interest in St. Francis—an interest which M. Sabatier did not create, but to which he gave form and volume—with the result that there are many good persons, shocked or depressed or exasperated by life to-day, who yearn for the conditions amid which St. Francis flourished. Historians have long known, of course, that this glorification of the "Ages of Faith" is wholly unwarranted. Mr. Coulton's demonstration, clear and entertaining, may come as a novelty and may convince some readers who never search the truth in formal histories.

He has chosen an excellent method. He selects from Salimbene's chronicle all the important passages which refer to Salimbene's own career. Thus we follow him from his infancy—he was the son of a noble of Parma, born in 1221. We learn something about his childhood and education, and about his conversion in 1238, the year after the Great Alleluia. Thenceforward for fifty years we keep pace with him on his journeys; we share his likes and dislikes; we listen to his stories and jokes; we see the sort of life he led in many parts of Italy and France: in a word, we become intimate with a thoroughly individualized personality.

Mr. Coulton next proceeds to use Salimbene as an historical witness, quoting his account of the political events of that half-century, and his opinions or descriptions of famous contemporaries. Through Salimbene's eyes we look on Frederick II., "the Wonder of the World," on Gregory IX. and other Popes, on great prelates and noted princes. And we get an initiate's view of life in the cloister and outside; of the rapid degeneration which set in almost before the death of St. Francis in the order he founded; of the worldliness of many of the religious; of the obscenity darkening into bestiality that was almost a commonplace in monastic life. Brother Salimbene is the best of witnesses, because he writes not to maintain any thesis, but simply to record facts that interest him, quite unconscious that posterity would see anything strange in these facts. No fair-minded reader can doubt that here is an actual piece of mediæval civilization; not a mere slice or segment, but a large, representative specimen. Salimbene is as careful to report that at Ravenna a duck could be bought for fourpence and twelve eggs for a penny, as to chronicle wars and sieges, the decrees of pontiffs and the fate of kings.

Finally, Mr. Coulton appeals to him for testimony as to the beliefs and practices of churchmen, high and low, and as to the relations of the clergy and the people. Superstitions and miracles abound. So do innumerable sects; for Mr. Coulton reminds his readers that in the thirteenth century the Catholic Church had not reached that uniformity which it has maintained at all costs since the Reformation. The organizing of the Dominicans as the persecuting order shortly before Salimbene's birth was to be a great aid to the hierarchy in its struggle for orthodoxy. The cynic who declared that in the United States there are seventy religious denominations and no religion, would have no difficulty in discovering among thirteenth-century fanatics the counterparts of the Eddyists, Dowieites, and Holy Ghosters of to-day.

The upshot of the evidence can give little comfort to those backward-gazing persons who sigh for the "Ages of Faith." They forget that for one St. Francis there was a host of dirty, ignorant, worldly religious; that the genuinely devout, always in a minority, were as sodden as the rest in satanology; that tyrants, of whom Ezzelino da Romano set the example, made carnage and torture everyday experiences; that slavery, serfdom, and concubinage were established institutions; that learning still busied itself with mechanical conceptions of man and the universe; that justice was rarer than oases in the Sahara; that the position of wife was still precarious. If it be asked why, in spite of these incontrovertible defects, a glamour has risen over the thirteenth century, we find much truth in the following paragraph from Mr. Coulton:

> Much of the generous modern overestimate of mediæval society is due to the admiration for mediæval art. The men who built and adorned our [English] churches (it is argued), must have been better men than we. Yet this indirect argument from art to morals is utterly fallacious. Raphael painted his Madonnas in the midst of a society rotten to the core; and the peculiarly modern art of landscape may teach us the same lesson. Six hundred years hence, the enthusiastic student of Turner will be tempted to imagine that Englishmen of the nineteenth century loved their country scenery better than any race in any age. Yet never has man done more to ruin the landscape; never has he crowded more blindly from the fresh fields into the smoky town. . . .
>
> The true artistic greatness of the Middle Ages begins with the eleventh century. The greatest works of those days were carried out not *by* celibate monks or clerics, but only *for* monks and clerics. The real artists were the most Bohemian of craftsmen—wandering masons, who loved wine, women, and song, but whose too riotous fancies were chastened by the spirit of asceticism among the clerical patrons that directed the general lines of the work. . . . Art was not the product of mediæval religion, but of worldliness under some restraint of religion. Many details of church carving are too licentious to be photographed or modelled, and some at least of our most beautiful English cathedrals were built in part from the fines collected from unchaste priests, in part from more questionable sources still.

This passage may stand as a fair example of Mr. Coulton's quality. He has read widely in the sources of his period, and is able at every turn to illustrate Salimbene's statements. Wherever it is desirable, as in the case of Joachim de Flora's theory of development, he does not restrict himself to a paragraph of explanation. As a result, his book, within the lines he has laid down, may be said to do for the thirteenth century what Burckhardt did for the Renaissance. It should be read by everyone who desires an accurate report on life as it was really lived in that interesting age. It may also be commended to the

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Dante scholar, as presenting the very elements out of which the "Divine Comedy" sprang; only when we realize that it was such a world as this by which Dante found himself encompassed can we understand much of his poem or measure his genius. Finally, it should not be overlooked by the student of civilization, whose business it is to appraise human progress at different epochs.

MATHIESON'S HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

Scotland and the Union. A History of Scotland from 1695 to 1747. By William Law Mathieson. New York: The Macmillan Co. $3.25.

Mr. Mathieson's "Politics and Religion in Scotland" was a book of such vigor, originality, and learning that all who welcomed its appearance four years ago will be glad to read the continuation. "Scotland and the Union" carries forward the thread of narrative from the period of the Revolution to the year after Culloden, and has for its central motive a theme of hardly less importance than the breach with Rome, which Mr. Mathieson discussed in his former work. It seems to be pretty generally agreed that the Scotch became a nation in the age of Knox. Mr. Mathieson's present task is to consider the state of national feeling at a time when Whig and Jacobite, Unionist and Patriot were striving to give the destinies of Scotland their final direction. There is less room for religious controversy than before, but the ecclesiastical element does not wholly disappear. Indeed the very quality which gave Mr. Mathieson's first work its distinctive excellence is once more apparent in his account of Scottish life during the era of the Union.

We refer here to the note of moderation—and of moderation exercised under rather trying circumstances. For centuries the Scotch made so serious a matter of religious partisanship that it was almost impossible for their historians to approach the Reformation and the Covenant without a vitiating warp of mind. Owing to their excess of admiration for Knox, Melville, and Henderson, the men whom these leaders of the Presbyterian cause opposed were habitually disparaged on the ground of lukewarmness, moral cowardice, or Anglomania. In writing a history of the Scottish Reformation Mr. Mathieson sought to trace the progress of a saner, less intemperate mood than that of Knox, and to define the ideal of Christian charity as it emerged at intervals amid the disputes of Calvinist and Episcopalian. For the first time, in a book of adequate scope, he examined the aims of the Scottish bishops and showed that they were not mere placehunters, but in many cases the representatives of a policy more humane and tolerant than that of their Presbyterian contemporaries. This was to adopt a novel point of view, and to incur in some quarters a charge of special pleading. But Mr. Mathieson did not come forward as a champion of any ecclesiastical type.

Relatively speaking, the ecclesiastical interest slackens at the period of the Revolution. Prior to the Restoration it holds an unchallenged priority. Under Charles II. and James VII. the misguided attempts of the Government to force the national conscience prolonged a strife which otherwise would have rapidly subsided in Scotland. "After a hundred and thirty years of strife," says Mr. Mathieson, "the great majority of the nation were disposed to regard the question as settled, and to devote themselves to more profitable pursuits."

When the Union was under debate a pamphleteer who opposed it took the ground that if the two countries became one, religious toleration would be sure to follow. However narrowminded the writer's views, his forecast was quite correct, since immediately the Episcopalians set up a demand for the same status in Scotland as that enjoyed in England by the Presbyterians. The Toleration bill of 1712, as passed by the House of Commons, with the overwhelming majority of 152 to 17, was a relief measure conceived in a generous spirit and quite acceptable to the Scottish Episcopalians. It gave them liberty of worship, with the right to use the liturgy, and promised them the protection of the State. The heresy trial, so familiar to our own age, had a part in the liberalizing of Scottish theology long before the days of Robertson Smith. For the thirty years between 1717 and 1747, the University of Glasgow was a storm centre of great activity in the theological world. Professor Simson, who held the Chair of Divinity from 1708, was the most prominent leader of liberal thought among the Scottish clergy until his suspension by vote of Assembly in 1729. On the theological side this book, like its predecessor, makes all episodes converge towards one motive—the contest between intolerance and the spirit of free inquiry.

In turning to the politics of the Union settlement, one must keep chiefly in view the state of national sentiment as it affected the diplomacy of the northern kingdom. A first glance at the situation might suggest the belief that Scotland was dragged into the Union by her great peers, whose interests in England ranged them on the side of the Court. As Mr. Mathieson points out: "Of 46 peers—to 21 against—who voted for the first article, at least 29 were privy councillors, pensioners, officers or officials, and six more, in addition to nine of the placemen, or 15 in all, had been enrolled or promoted in the peerage since the Revolution." There may also have been a little direct bribery, but the amount spent in cash to secure votes for the Union could not have been large.

All things considered, it is clear enough that the Lords as a body were strongly in favor of the Union. But Mr. Mathieson does not credit them with having had sufficient influence to carry through the measure unaided. A change in the constitution was proposed, and constitutional changes cannot well be put through by a bare majority. On the one side stood the great Whig peers who were committed by interest to the Union; on the other side were ranged the Country Party under such leaders as Hamilton, Athol, and Fletcher, with the pronounced Jacobites supporting them. In this juncture the casting vote belonged to the so-called *Squadrone Volante*, which took form through a schism in the Country Party. The name is misleading, for the members of the Squadrone, so far from constituting a small minority engaged in a guerilla war of politics, were at the decisive moment a majority of the Country Party who acted under a strong and sober conviction.

Mr. Mathieson shows marked skill in blending a portrayal of character with the discussion of purely political issues. His chapter entitled "The Union from Within" is quite the best study we have seen of the statesmen whose talents light up the sessions of the Scottish Parliaments during its last days. Having had a somewhat inglorious career until the eve of its disappearance from history, this body did not vanish without leaving on record a series of vigorous and eloquent debates, in which the honors were evenly divided among a large number of speakers. "The crisis of the Union," says Mr. Mathieson, "could produce no Knox, and, fruitful as it might have been in political genius, it produced no Maitland and no Montrose; but when we consider the personality of those who pass and repass most prominently before us in that closing scene—the graceful adroitness of Queensberry and Seafield, the massive intellect of Stair, the magnanimity of Roxburgh, the charm and impetuosity of Argyll, the intensity of Fletcher, the fiery invective of Hamilton and Belhaven—we cannot but conclude that at no previous crisis had great ability been so plentiful, and the level of public talent so high." One may be permitted to add that the standard of political honesty was quite as high at the time of the Union as it had been in the days of the Reformation.

Mr. Mathieson credits the Church with having discouraged the anti-Unionist extremists with no less enlightenment than was shown by the leaders of the Squadrone. This is not to say that it disclosed any great enthusiasm for the Union. Some of the clergy objected that the Covenant exacted a promise from its subscribers to labor for the reformation of the English Church. How could such a promise be fulfilled if Scotland went into partnership with a country in which Episcopacy was established by law? But if the Church was unfriendly to several of the changes which the Union involved, it did not preach a crusade. "The majority in parliament," says Mr. Mathieson, "would certainly have been paralyzed if the clergy had consented to encourage a popular revolt . . . and, when we consider how little the Union was in harmony with their ecclesiastical traditions, and how strong was the current of popular feeling which threatened at times to sweep them off their feet, it is no small compliment to their own prudence, and to the vigilance and capacity of their leaders, that they adhered on the whole to the path of neutrality—unsympathetic and even menacing neutrality as it was."

The two Jacobite risings come within the range of Mr. Mathieson's survey, and he gives an adequate account of both. But Jacobite literature is a thing by itself and we do not infer that Mr. Mathieson aspires to do more in the present work than indicate the general relations of the '15 and the '45 to the Union. The last chapter closes with a well deserved panegyric of Duncan Forbes, but for our own part we prefer to take leave of this excellent book by quoting a sentence which occurs at a much earlier stage of the narrative:

Happy it was for the future of Great

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Britain that Scottish nationality went down, suppressed indeed in outward form, but defiant and unbroken to the last; for this spirit, persisting as it did, not only ensured to Scotland its just recognition in the terms of union, but in after years, when bitter memories had passed away, asserting its vitality in literature and arms, and promoting a solid partnership founded on mutual esteem, was to mingle with English traditions and to become the common heritage of the British race.

RECENT FICTION.

The House of Cobwebs and Other Stories. By George Gissing. With an introductory essay on the author by Thomas Seccombe. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The fifteen brief sketches that make up this posthumous work by George Gissing have a very uniform quality which readers unused to the finer literary discriminations will perhaps find monotonous. In fact the effect of the book is cumulative, and one must have read far before he realizes how remarkable a survey it is of the narrow world in which Gissing lived most of his life—the grey limbo of shabby gentility, with its meticulous scruples maintained in the face of penury, its obscure tragedies and comedies, its furtive generosities, its lonely intransigencies. And Gissing has invested this chronicle of those who fail with a curious dignity. His heroes may have failed, but at least they have not consciously surrendered. Rebuffs are their daily bread, which they eat with patient stoicism. They one and all retain the respect due to those who, perforce, live alone or in alien companionship, yet indulge no bitterness toward the prosperous world. Indeed, this group of reduced gentlemen, impoverished bibliophiles, penniless authors, and the like stands in tacit, but damning contrast with the children of worldly success who occasionally intervene—the money lenders, the prosperous friends who lightly promise but as quickly forget, the whole lucky rabble that has no time to indulge delicate feelings.

Nobody has traced the hidden lives that rim and permeate London with quite the tact and knowledge of Gissing. He has written better books than this perhaps, but here is the quintessence of his art. It would be interesting to trace the double strand that runs through these stories and all his works—the eager humanitarian curiosity that he learned from Dickens, and the austere restraint of phrase and feeling imposed by his life-long classical studies. One may note a somewhat analogous case in that other Dickens disciple, Alphonse Daudet. But these considerations lie aside from a brief notice, and it is enough to say that the observation in these sketches is originally fine, and then highly selective; the English of great purity and incisiveness; and that a certain thinness of tone and lack of humor are necessary results of gruelling personal experience with the matter in hand. It is a book for those who love impeccable workmanship. In a period where slapdash and overemphasis are in favor, it may not win the general ear, but it will, we are confident, find the kind of audience that conveys a volume to posterity.

Space fails to do more than mention Mr. Seccombe's sympathetic study of Gissing which raises issues of life and letters beyond the scope of a mere book review.

The Master-Man. New York: John Lane Co.

"The Master-Man" would be what the ladies used to call "a sweet, pretty, little story" if it had rightly fulfilled its being. The central figure is a Southern country "doctor of the old school," with the celebrated virtues of his kind. He is an old bachelor, who has had an early disappointment in love. The void in his home, if not in his heart, is filled by a niece who both adores him and makes him comfortable. To her come wooers. Thus far all is familiar and intelligible; it is Dr. Thorne over again. The course of true love will not, of course, run perfectly smooth, but it will not run awry. In this our expectations are answered. The less desired suitor is not slow in withdrawing from the field, and the favored one (who is the son of the doctor's old love, and the doctor's own understudy) is displayed in those fair romantic proportions to which the hero of an idyl is natural heir. It seems that we have only to watch the happy pair, as they pace hand in hand under the benignant eye of the Master-Man along the primrose way. Judge, therefore, our confusion and dismay when we find our gentle idyl attempting to transform itself into a problem story of a sort, with a tragic ending! Lynch-law is the burning question. The facts of the case are stated plainly enough. A young girl, a protégée of the doctor and his niece, is criminally assaulted by a negro. The doctor, after months of search, finds his man and has him jailed. A lynching mob assembles, and the Master-Man, almost single-handed, defends the prisoner till the arrival of the police. Wounded and exhausted, he hastens to the bedside of the dying girl. Meanwhile a heavy storm arises; and when, at dawn, the doctor tries to make his way home through the great drifts, his strength fails him, and his life ends.

Now, the unfortunate thing about all this, to us, is the casualness of it. The lynching business seems to be introduced as mere local color; or, perhaps, rather as a fulcrum by which the man's mastery may get its full hold upon us. Surely, rape is not an incident to be made ornamental use of. It has been and may be the theme of sombre tragedy; but a most difficult and dreadful theme it must always be—*res nefas* unless upon the mightiest tongues. Is it not a sign of the lawlessness of our fiction that such a jarring of motives should nowadays be so common? In what stable forms of art are such things conceivable? In the Forest of Arden one does not come upon a casually mutilated Lavinia; and nobody has thought of making of Lucrece a Roman holiday.

The Leader. By Mary Dillon. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

The American political novel continues to be of thin texture: is it because American refinement is still somewhat gingerly in its approaches to the public arena? The Leader is a popular orator of inconvenient principles. In his contact with the bosses he plays, as would be expected, a losing game, but remains (a fact plainly due rather to his silver tongue than to his principles, though these also count) an idol of the people. His name is brought forward for nomination at a St. Louis convention as "The Lion of the Party," "The man who alone in American politics stood for a great principle," "The faithful friend of the masses," "The idolized leader of the people." He makes the best speeches and gets the most applause; but he is not nominated, though a final chance offers itself through the repudiation by his successful adversary of a plank in the platform. The veil of fiction cast over these incidents is of the thinnest; the writer's art gives them no fresh meaning. For the rest, we are not cheated of our "heart interest." The course of true love runs smoothly enough for all practical purposes. And there is always hope that our Voice of the People may make itself more profitably heard during the next campaign.

The Fighting Chance. By Robert W. Chambers. D. Appleton & Co.

Since this book gives a pretty detailed description of American high life, it will have a certain value for shop-girls and dry-goods clerks solicitous to know what to wear, what to say, and what to do in unwonted social emergencies. It is hard to see why any other class of readers should take it at all seriously. The story displays a cheap dandyism of phrase, a cheap exuberance of amorous incident of a harmless enough kind, a cheap social satire, not to mention the cheap expedient of hinting at real personages in New York society and finance. Yet, with all its palpable defects upon it, this novel was framed for popularity; it is just the sort of mess of love-making, phrase-making, abundant gush, and facile cynicism of which the public palate apparently cannot have too much. But it is emphatically not for the literary epicure.

Christus nicht Jesus. By F. W. van Oestéren. Berlin: Egon Fleischel & Co.

Fogazarro's "Il Santo" bids fair to have a rival in Germany. Although the Jesuit problem has of late been superseded by other more vital ones in fiction and drama, recent events in France have brought it to the foreground. The election of a German for the important office of Jesuit-general, too, may divert some of the attention which the book of the Italian receives.

Friedrich Werner van Oestéren came to sudden prominence six years ago, with the publication of his "Merlin," which some critics ranked with the best epic poems written since the passing of the classic period. It elucidates the character of Merlin by flashes of a philosophical insight which reflect the spirit of our time. This same philosophy dominated his historical epic "Domitian," which was published soon after. A volume of animal fables followed, "Wir," in which the author satirizes his own time; and then a symbolical poem, "Schatten im Walde." This closed his poetical production for the present, and with "Die Wallfahrt," a story of a pilgrimage in Galicia, he made his début, three years ago, as a novelist.

It is not difficult to trace the train of

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thought which led from that picture of superstition and license to the finely spun web of intrigue which forms the plot of the new book. There a vulgar rural clergy deluded the lower classes by appeals to their senses; here the sharpest and best-trained minds of the Order of Jesus approach the higher classes with all the cunning and diplomacy at their command. The *Tendenz* is much more apparent in the later book; but its artistic value does not suffer. For the author's gift of characterization has created a number of figures interesting from a psychological point of view, regardless of their significance.

The story is told with directness, but without repulsive details. It revolves about the illegitimate son of a liberal prince, influential at the court of the reigning monarch. This son of an actress, who was married to an officer of the army, is taken by his foster-father to a famous Jesuit school patronized by the aristocracy. To gain the mother's favor, who is still the friend of the prince, and, through her, indirectly to influence him and counteract his hostility towards the order, is the plan cherished by the fathers. The tool chosen for that purpose is Brother Victor, a high-minded young idealist, who has occasion to become the boy's friend and protector when his schoolmates begin to taunt him with his descent. Although the young priest appeals to the imagination of the woman, who has become a widow, her friendship for her former lover is too deep to admit of relations which the fathers hope to see established between the priest and the mother of his pupil. Victor becomes conscious of the mission which he was unknowingly to perform, renounces his vows, and frustrates the well-laid scheme.

This plot is supplemented by others of minor importance, and one, the love of Maja Karmetter for the legitimate son of the prince, his treatment of her, and her death, is not without grave significance. But the strength of the book lies in the picture the author presents of the inner workings of the order, especially of its educational institutions. For his vision is undeniably objective; he sees the disciples of Ignatius Loyola as products of centuries of training. He does not sit in judgment, but shows us the working of the machinery, without adding his comment. The characters are admirably drawn. The pedagogue prelates, especially the rector of the school, with his inscrutable diplomatic smile; the far less diplomatic Huellmann, the stern fanatic, pressing upon the others measures of an almost rash severity; and Father Holfelder, never denying his rustic origin by a certain simple spontaneity and inherent sincerity, yet quite subservient to the holy mission—all these are strongly outlined types. Holfelder is a figure almost impossible outside of German fiction; he is of the type Grützner liked to paint.

American Public Problems. The Election of Senators. By George H. Haynes. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.50 net.

This book is an arsenal of arguments on both sides of the question, Shall the election of senators by direct vote of the people in the several States be substituted for the present method of election by the State legislatures? The author believes the subject to be very important, because the Senate has power, for the time at least. It is the dominant body in Congress, the body now mainly relied on both to put into effective and rational form the crude and erratic legislation of the lower House, and also to act as a check on the attacks of Socialism, on the one side, and the encroachments of the executive on the other. Moreover, thirty-one States—two-thirds are required by the Constitution—have made formal application to Congress for the submission of an amendment authorizing the changes. "The present volume," he adds in his preface, "aims to make clear the considerations which led the framers of the Constitution to place the election of State senators in the hands of the State legislatures; the form and spirit of elections thus made, and the causes which have led to the recent and pressing demand for popular control over the choice of senators. It attempts also to forecast in some degree the probable effectiveness of such popular control, whether exercised under a loose construction of the present law, or in accordance with a Constitutional amendment making possible the election of senators by direct popular vote."

What is meant by "a loose construction of the present law" is, we take it, explained by many instances given of States which even now attempt to ascertain in advance the popular desire as to the senatorship, and to bring this to bear upon the legislature (p. 140). There is nothing, so far as we know, to prevent a State legislature from making a habit of selecting as senator the candidate who shall have received in advance a majority vote of the people of the State; in this way the function of the legislature in electing senators would become gradually atrophied (p. 138), as has happened to the same function in the case of the electoral college. The author produces a good deal of evidence to show that this process is now going on; the end of it would be that the legislature in every State would merely record the popular choice previously declared; a roundabout way of securing popular selection.

The book is so complete and so fair that, but for one circumstance, we should not feel called upon to do more than to refer the reader to it as a lucid and exhaustive compendium of all that can be urged on either side of the question discussed. This circumstance is that it is, in a measure, inconclusive. The argument assumes, of course, that the Senate, as it exists, is in need of improvement. Chapter iv. discusses and analyzes "the personnel" of the Senate, with the result that in the opinion of "close observers" one senator out of every three owes his election to his personal wealth, to his being satisfactory to the "system," or to his "expertness in political manipulation." This part of the book is more labored than is necessary. It is enough to take the author's list of the seventeen best men in the Senate (p. 93) and compare it with a list of the seventeen best men in the Senate fifty years ago, to see what a falling off there has been in character, learning, independence, and ability. The only real question is how far this falling off can be remedied by changing the method of election. We understand the author's conclusion to be that the change would produce some improvement; whether a great deal or very little is not clear. This obscurity, however, we are inclined to think is inherent in the nature of the subject, and of the argument. There are so many causes at work which influence the selection of the members of a body like the Senate, besides that of the mere method of election, that to determine in advance how far a change in that would improve its character is an impossibility. The tendency of the change might be towards improvement, yet this tendency might be counteracted by others, so as to leave matters very much as they are now. The array of arguments pro and con, marshalled by the author, has slightly the effect of leaving us in a quandary as to whether we may not after all be wrong in thinking there is any substantial preponderance.

The true preponderance may possibly be brought out by a statement of the argument in a form slightly different from the author's. The complete enumeration of every conceivable argument is sometimes a pitfall, because arguments of little or no consequence tend to obscure the important ones.

In the present case, the controlling circumstances are the following: First, there is a direct connection between the decline in the character of the Senate and the method of nomination. The legislatures elect now those whose names are chosen for them by a boss or committee; this boss or committee, as we know by experience in New York, controls the legislature, and selects the senator from considerations of party subserviency (we leave out cases like those of Mr. Lodge, and others, who select themselves), which exclude, so far as possible, independence and character as qualifications. Now, in this process, the fact that the legislature is a small body, the members of which are themselves dependent for their seats on the pleasure of the boss or committee, gives the latter an enormous advantage. Make the election popular, and the nomination, instead of being in the hands of the boss or committee, goes back to a convention, such as now nominates the governor. While it is true that the boss or committee always has a "slate" for this convention, which would (under the new system) include the names of candidates for the senatorship; it is by no means true that the boss always controls the convention as he does the legislature. On the contrary, instances are continually occurring of distinguished and capable men being selected as nominees for governor, who would not stand a ghost of a chance for consideration by the boss for the senatorship. Mr. Hughes and Mr. Jerome are both conceivable as governors of New York, and their chances are to-day being canvassed; while neither one of them is likely in any event to be made senator. The reason for the difference is obvious. The general convention of a party chosen from a whole State cannot be owned and controlled as a legislative majority can. It is consequently a body in which nominations are more likely to be influenced by these very considerations of general repute, which it is the object of any good system of nomination to make effective. In the fact, there-

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fore, that popular election would change the system of nominations, would destroy the present pocket legislative nominaton, and substitute a system more open to the influence of popular opinion, lies, we think, the answer to the question propounded by the author. It remains true that no system of nomination or election will produce good senators, unless the public desires them earnestly, and detests bad senators sincerely. The change in question will merely give those in any State who desire a good senator an opportunity better than they now have, for urging his claims.

The Development of Freedom of the Press in Massachusetts. By Clyde Augustus Duniway, Associate Professor of History in Leland Stanford Junior University. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

Dr. Duniway's volume was originally a thesis for the degree of doctor of philosophy in political science at Harvard. In its final form, it is a work of permanent value; for in the intervening nine years (1897-1906), Dr. Duniway has continued his research and greatly extended his monograph. His first idea was to write a history of the right of freedom of discussion in the United States; to do for America, that is, what Henry Jephson did so well for England in 1892, when he published "The Platform." As a preliminary step to a work which would have been larger in its scope than Mr. Jephson's history—for Mr. Jephson is concerned exclusively with the development of the public meeting in England—Dr. Duniway began an investigation into the restrictions upon the freedom of the press in the British-American colonies; and when the magnitude of even this one phase of the right of free discussion was realized, he determined to narrow his investigation to Massachusetts.

British American colonies might or might not have included Canada—and had Dr. Duniway pushed his investigations into the older provinces he would have discovered that New Brunswick and Nova Scotia from their earliest settlement benefited much from the progress towards a free press which had been made in Massachusetts up to the time of the Revolution. In New Brunswick, the Legislature assumed that it had powers to punish offending newspaper publishers, much as the General Court of Massachusetts in 1722 punished James Franklin of the *New England Courant*, when it ordered the high sheriff of the County of Suffolk to detain Franklin in the stone prison during the pleasure of the court. The New Brunswick Assembly at Frederickton, about 1830, committed the publisher of the Merimachi *Gleaner* to jail. In 1844 it similarly committed Hill and Doak, the publishers of the *Loyalist*; but in this case there was an appeal to the courts, as there was in the case of Daniel Fowle, who, in 1755, was committed to jail by the General Court of Massachusetts for printing a satirical account of the debates of the House on an unpopular excise bill. In Fowle's case a judicial decision barred the action and assessed the costs against the plaintiff. In the Hill and Doak case in New Brunswick, however, to the dismay of the Legislature, the attempt to bar the action on the same plea that was successfully advanced in Massachusetts in 1756, failed. The printers of the *Loyalist* recovered damages from the Speaker and the sergeant-at-arms; and it was discovered that the Canadian Legislatures had never possessed the power which they had used in committing printers for contempt. They did not possess this power "because," in the words of a judgment of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in London in 1843—a judgment which governed the New Brunswick case—"the ordinary tribunals of the colony were sufficient to investigate and punish past misconduct."

This may seem a digression on the part of the reviewer; but it is not an impertinent digression, for a glance at the history of the free press in Canada shows that Dr. Duniway has good ground for his claim that in confining himself to Masachusetts it was possible to treat "every aspect of the subject with sufficient fulness to give a true picture of historic development." Another reason for regarding Dr. Duniway's work as of more than local value is to be found in the copious footnotes which record parallel developments in other of the thirteen colonies. In a word, it is much more than the history of the development of a free press in Massachusetts. Either in the text or in the footnotes there is to be found the history of a free press in the United States; and as most of the early newspapers in the Provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were begun by United Empire Loyalists who had emigrated from Boston, and who were familiar with the status of the press in Massachusetts in the years immediately preceding the Revolution, Dr. Duniway's work will have to be taken into account by the historian of the constitutional development of the press in the Dominion of Canada.

Still another value attaches to Dr. Duniway's monograph. It was necessary for his purpose that he should make clear the changing position of the press in England from the settlement of Massachusetts to the Revolution in 1776; and he has done this so thoroughly that it is scarcely conceivable that any American student of the development of a free press in England will have occasion to consult any other authority. Dr. Duniway carries his study of English conditions beyond the Revolution. He brings it down as far as the Act of 1792—Fox's Act to remove doubts respecting the functions of juries in cases of libel. There was much legislation concerning the press by the British Parliament after the act which resulted from the exertions of Fox and Erskine; but most of it had to do with registration, imprints, excise duties on paper and advertisements, and with stamps on newspapers. Fiscal burdens the English newspapers had to carry for sixty or seventy years after the enactment of 1792. Save for these, however, the English newspaper press was free by 1792; so that Dr. Duniway comes within measurable distance of being the historian of the free press in England as well as in Massachusetts. In fact, he comes nearer than any other writer to being the historian of the free press in the Anglo-Saxon world; for Fox Bourne bestows only a couple of pages on American journalism before the Revolution in his "English Newspapers." Andrews does little more; while Hunt and Grant ignore oversea British newspapers altogether. More than this, it can be asserted for Dr. Duniway's monograph that it embodies the first scholarly work that has been put into this phase of the history of the press as an Anglo-Saxon institution; and it is perhaps noteworthy that unlike all preceding histories of the newspaper press its author is not of the newspaper craft.

The Frog Book. North American Toads and Frogs, with a Study of the Habits and Life Histories of those of the Northeastern States. Mary C. Dickerson. 16 colored plates, 96 half-tone plates, and 35 line drawings in the text; the illustrations based largely upon over 300 photographs by the author. "The Nature Library." New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. $4 net.

Any remnants of popular prejudice against frogs, toads, and tree-toads are likely to be dispelled by this attractive and instructive volume. The fifty-eight living North American species are described and (with one exception) finely illustrated, often in colors, from the author's photographs. The regrettable exception is *Ascaphus*, the sole North American representative of the discoglossoid toads, a single example of which was found in 1897 in the State of Washington. Naturally and appropriately, greater space is devoted to the forms that are more familiar, more interesting, or economically more important, *e. g.*, the bull-frog, leopard-frog, garden toad and common tree-toad, *hyla versicolor*. The thoroughness of treatment is evidenced by the fact that to the last named, picturesquely styled "this entertaining little acrobat of the frog world," are given six pages of text, two line cuts, two half-tone plates exhibiting nine attitudes, and two colored plates (one of them the frontispiece) showing ten color-phases of this versicolored creature. Among the uncolored plates special praise is due those which represent the stages of development and the parts employed in the "Keys"; Figs. 8 and 9 clearly show the two kinds of vocal pouches.

Notwithstanding some examples of the prevailing nature-study gush or cant, the style is generally simple and direct. Among particularly graphic phrases or descriptions are the following: "The frog's moist skin is like a great gill stretched over the whole body"; "if a sparrow comes for its daily bath beside what seems to be a moss-covered stone, its brown tail feathers are seen a moment later protruding from the frog's mouth, while the frog is sitting sedately in just the same spot." Most persons are aware, directly or indirectly, of the eminent edibility of frogs' legs; yet probably few realize that "frog-hunting yields $50,000 annually to the hunters, but threatens practical extinction to certain native species," or that so many thousand young frogs are sacrificed for fish-bait that some regions are overrun with grasshoppers, and vegetation suffers materially. The economic value of the "heavy-gaited toad" is well set forth in the following paragraph:

It is found that 88 per cent. of a toad's food consists of insects and other small creatures that are considered pests in the garden, grain-field, or pasture. It is estimated that in three months a toad will eat 9,936 injurious insects, and that of this number 1,988 (16 per cent. of all its food)

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are cutworms. Counting the cutworms only, the estimated value of a single toad is $19.88 per year, if the injury done by a single cutworm be put at the low figure of one cent per year.

Yet unmixed commendation cannot be accorded either the author or the publishers. The fifty-page Introduction deals, for the most part, clearly, concisely, and correctly with such general topics as structure, development, distribution, and phylogeny; but its technicality might well discourage the lay reader at the very outset, and certain portions would have been better relegated to the end of the volume. On the other hand, under particular species are discussed at considerable length topics of equally general application, voice, segmentation, metamorphosis, moulting, and respiration, that would come properly within the Introduction, wherever placed. Cilia are not "minute hairs" (p. 180) in any proper sense. Only the linguist or the professional naturalist could be expected to interpret "metachrosis (p. 150)"; nor should it be necessary to consult the Index for information that "Batrachia" and "Salientia" are synonyms of *Amphibia* and *Anura*.

More than one-half of the line cuts might have been omitted without detriment to the proper subject of the work. The list of color plates does not name the forms represented, and the page is ostentatious. Several of the full-page half-tone plates display merely forest and stream; the frogs and toads are no more in evidence than was the prophet in the picture of Jonah and the Whale. The list of half-tones is verbose. The Index comprises less than three pages of too small print, and is inadequate for a volume of such size intended for the laity. The following specific omissions have been noted incidentally: *Anura* (pp. 245, 248); behavior (27); metachrosis (150); pollywog (68) purring (173); squirting water (172); fatal effects of salt and lime (36); and "spring-frog" as a synonym of *rana pipiens* (171). The Bibliography covers nine pages, and includes the titles (mostly sufficient) of 165 publications by 113 writers. A later edition of "Wiedersheim" should have been cited. Typographic errors are surprisingly few. In Stejneger the *j* is commonly replaced by *i;* in the Index and on pp. 13 and 12, respectively, Dipnoan has a superfluous i before the a, and the y is omitted from Crossopterygii.

The Becquerel Rays and the Properties of Radium. By the Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S. Second edition. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $2.40 net.

The fact that the books on radio-activity by Strutt and by Rutherford have both gone into second editions in two years shows that the subject is of great general interest, and that our knowledge of it is changing rapidly. Radio-activity and the speculations aroused by it have ceased to be a nine days' wonder, and an earnest desire has arisen among physicists to fit this new material into the scientific mansion which is building so laboriously.

While the new theory of ions, electrons, or corpuscles, as they are somewhat indiscriminately called, does not professedly contravene the atomic theory, yet the additions are so revolutionary as to amount really to a new conception of the structure of matter. The metaphysical idea underlying the supposed divisibility of the atom is little dwelt on by the expounders of the new belief. Yet the very fact that, as our knowledge increases, we find it more and more difficult to retain simplicity of structure and are compelled to divide and subdivide the ultimate particles of matter in order to explain newly discovered properties, raises the question whether, after all, we are on the right track. Who can say that in a few years Thomson's corpuscle will not be further divided, and so on until a *divisio ad absurdum* is reached? That this new theory is already beyond the limits of physical science is even more apparent when the properties of the electron are considered. Some of the corpuscular school even now maintain that the electron is an immaterial substance, composed wholly of negative electricity. It is difficult enough to hold to a conception of the essentials of matter, but a substance, electricity, possessing inertia and no matter, is at present at least incomprehensible. Our ideas of inertia and matter are firmly anchored to a space representation, and no necessity for such a space relationship has been found for electricity. In the development of this theory there has been a too ready submission to the glamour of the corpuscle and a lack of variety and conclusiveness in the proofs. But after all is said, the theory of electrons has two powerful supports: it appeals to the imagination, and it has been the means of co-ordinating a mass of discordant phenomena, and of giving a working hypothesis for their explanation. And that is a great service.

Mr. Strutt in the new edition of his book has given an adequate and clear outline of the facts and theories of radio-activity, and has made his treatment quite elementary. Necessarily, a subject changing so rapidly will require in a short while a revised account, but Mr. Strutt has grown up in the subject, and is quite competent for the task. We note a few typographical errors which should have been corrected, and at least one misstatement. When he says that "Radium gives off enough heat to *boil* its own weight of water in an hour," he should have said "to bring to the boiling temperature."

Brief Literary Criticisms. By Richard Holt Hutton. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50.

This is the second volume of selections from the essays contributed to the *Spectator* by the late R. H. Hutton, a genial and suggestive critic of Ainger's type, but with more power and less humor. No man in England was more just or better balanced, and when a great writer died, such as George Eliot, Carlyle, Longfellow, or Browning, one could count on finding in the *Spectator* an accurate and well-written estimate of the man's genius and his work. Several of these papers have been reprinted here.

A useful but not a great critic was Hutton, one who served his generation well, and can still be read with profit, though some of the subjects that he discusses, such as the comparison of Browning and Tennyson, the question whether Clough was a true poet, the "poetic place" of Matthew Arnold, have lost their freshness for the present, until, in fact, other generations call for a revaluation of the late Victorian writers. Most critics have a weakness for some obscure poet to whose merits they try to convert an unwilling world. Hutton's protégé is William Caldwell Roscoe, whose Malgodin, in the poem "Violenzia," is, he tells us, a tempter more sardonic and resourceful than Mephistopheles. Writing on "Decadence in Poetry," he brings together interesting evidence from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries to show that morbid taint is to be looked for, not in the age itself or in any particular society, but in the individual decadent, who has not "the judgment or the breadth of sympathy to find out the healthier instincts of his age." Hutton had a profound admiration for Matthew Arnold, whom he called "the greatest elegiac poet in the English language." Arnold's descriptive poetry he considered peculiarly refreshing and restful to the soul—more so even than Gray's, and his self-questioning strains were, he thought, bound to become more and more popular as they are recognized to be the voice of this self-questioning age.

Miss Roscoe has prefixed to this selection an excellent reproduction of Hollyer's photograph of Hutton.

The Poetry and Philosophy of George Meredith. By George Macaulay Trevelyan New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50 net.

Mr. Trevelyan's title is, perhaps, a trifle misleading. What he deals with is the "style" and the "content" of Meredith's poetry. Under the former head, to which he devotes the first two chapters, he remarks upon the following points, which he takes to be characteristic in this respect of his author: "The richness of his imagination; his use of metaphor as an appeal directed more to the mind than to the eyes and ears; the rapid succession of his metaphors; his compression; . . . the sleepless activity of his intellect; and, lastly, the haunting quality of his phrases." The discussion of these matters is not particularly rich or suggestive—it is rather what the rhetoricians would call "expansion"—with the exception of an excellent comparison of the Meredithian metaphor with the Elizabethan. The main interest of this part of the volume consists in copious quotations from "Modern Love" and "Love in the Valley"; for, however he contrives it, these poems, and particularly the former, do seem to gain something from the manner in which he sets them out. Perhaps his judicious abridgment has something to do with it. At the same time, in the case of Meredith, as of Browning, it is a great advantage to be told what a piece is about, before you read it.

From these same characteristics just referred to, Mr. Trevelyan derives the poet's chief failings too, his ruggedness and his obscurity. "My principal contentions have been that these faults are mostly due to the style, but occasionally to the subject matter." They are "the necessary price paid for those literary mer-

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its which distinguish his work." Happy the critic nowadays who can make shortcomings appear as the defects of his author's qualities! His mission is accomplished. If a writer is crude or rough, it is due to his strength; if he is formless and chaotic, to his breadth of vision; obscure, to his profundity. "The army of human thought," says Mr. Trevelyan, "is advancing in two bands: one marches along the high road under the bright hard light of science; but the other is straggling into the dimmer shades of intricate psychology, into 'haunted roods,' the birthplace of new aspirations, prophecies, and religions, which can find no expression in dogmatic statements, but only in the inspired language of beauty, suggesting the undefined, and making the unseen felt. Mr. Meredith has long been a leader in this direction."

As for the exposition of Mr. Meredith's philosophy, it seems in some way much more tenuous and impalpable than what precedes—partly, no doubt, on account of the difficulty of reducing a poetry of adumbration to "dogmatic statements." "Mr. Meredith," his critic repeats, "is the inspired prophet of sanity." Perhaps so; but was ever sanity led so mad a dance? At all events, as Mr. Meredith is represented—whether rightly or not, it would take too long to decide—what is most conspicuous to the spectator is the grapple between the poet and the humanitarian. It may be that Mr. Trevelyan lays too much stress upon his author's socialism, what may be defined as his disposition to substitute the sense of society for his personal conscience. But in such a case the poet's only hope is in resistance; for either he or the humanitarian must go to the wall:

George Meredith is the most modern, although he is the oldest, of our living poets. Whenever he is not in touch with the common ideas of our age, it is more often because he is still in front, than because he has been left behind. In his spirit we find a synthesis of many crude elements of latter-day thought.

At least, such a text, if adequately expounded, would go far toward explaining the poet's unmistakable confusion and inconsequence.

Highways and Byways in Oxford and the Cotswolds. By Herbert A. Evans. With Illustrations by Frederick L. Griggs. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.

There is no district in England better suited to the aims of the Highways and Byways Series than the Cotswolds of the shires of Oxford, Gloucester, and Worcester. They are almost unspoiled by the railway, and have remained pastoral; are, in fact, more pastoral now than in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when their cloth-mills were celebrated. The yellow or gray stone of which the Cotswold houses are built exactly suits that hilly country, and no counties in England are richer in Jacobean mullioned manor-houses, granges, priories, and abbeys. Too many of these have been converted into farmhouses or allowed to fall to ruin, but here and there they have come, of late years, into the hands of intelligent owners who, like William Morris at Kelmscott, have known how to restore and to preserve all their charm. The Cotswold churches are often like small cathedrals, built in the days when the wool merchants, who made their fortunes there and built many of the great houses, counted it a pious duty to spend on the church what they had earned from the soil. Nearly all of these churches have been "restored" by overzealous parsons in the nineteenth century, and Mr. Evans has to lament, on almost every page, some act of vandalism which has filled the windows with vulgar "cathedral" glass of modern workmanship, or scraped the old mellow plaster from the walls. It was after seeing, in 1876, the alterations under the name of restoration going on in the beautiful Norman church of Burford, that William Morris founded the "Society for the Protection of Ancient Buildings," better known as the "Anti-Scrape Society." Cotswold wheat and barley, like Cotswold wool, are famous, and H. Rider Haggard has admitted that the farmers in the Gloucestershire Cotswolds are better off than elsewhere in England, so that the Agricultural College of Cirencester, the Cotswold capital, with its four hundred acres for scientific farming, is happily placed. The wool merchants in the palmy days of the industry, before foreign growths had driven them almost out of the field, used to send the wool on long strings of packhorses by the ancient trackways across the Berkshire, Hampshire, and Surrey downs—those deep and narrow tracks now half-grown over that to the casual visitor to the downs are so mysterious—to the Medway ports and thence to Calais, where the English staplers had their warehouses. Lately a Gloucestershire sheep farmer has invented a method of softening the native wool, and a cloth can now be produced from it as fine as from a Yorkshire loom, so that Cotswold cloth may again rank with the best.

Mr. Evans pursued the ways of the Cotswolds on a bicycle, with Oxford, which he describes in the first chapter, for starting point. The roads are good, but hilly, and are not likely to encourage motoring. Perhaps the chapter most interesting to American readers is that which covers the charming villages of the Worcestershire Cotswolds, Broadway (which in spite of its distance from the railway has become a favorite American resort in summer, since Mr. Abbey and Madame Navarro established themselves there); Willersey, its near neighbor; Weston, and Aston Subedge, and the rest, whose cottagers now depend mainly on fashionable summer visitors. In these books, the illustrations play an equal part with the descriptive writing, and much of the antiquarian information supplied by Mr. Evans would be thrown away on the reader without the admirable sketches by Mr. Griggs. The volume is fully up to the rest of this charming series.

Music and Drama.

English Diction for Singers and Speakers. By Louis Arthur Russell. Oliver Ditson Co.

Rousseau maintained that the French language was unsuited for music; but Gluck's way of using it made him change his mind. The English language is still awaiting its Gluck, and pending his arrival singers continue to look down on it as quite unfit for their purpose. They will be surprised to hear the opinions of Mr. Russell on this point. The English language, he maintains, is proper enough. It is the vocalists who are at fault; they have not learned their lesson. As he recollects the great German, Italian, and French singers in attempts at English song and oratorio, made in this country and in England, he can only say that the effect of their vocalizing in English has been, almost without exception, ridiculous, even though these artists have had a good conversational English vocabulary, and a fair idea of English grammar. "From such exhibitions as these has come the theory that English is unsingable." But English is not unsingable. Artists like Charles Santley, Sims Reeves, Nellie Melba, Lillian Nordica, Lillian Blauvelt, are able to sing not only in several of what are considered the "music languages," using a pure diction; they can use the English language also musically. Why? Because they have taken pains to learn it. The French, German, and Italian artists have not done so; they are poor linguists; the various vowel sounds are not clear to them. Undoubtedly, the English language is more difficult to master, but it is worth the trouble, being better adapted to the requirements of expression, especially in the finer and more sensitive lines, than the other languages. "The singer who has mastered English may well laugh at him who can sing only in a simpler language, like Italian."

This doctrine will not please the proud Continental singers from abroad, but there is much truth in it. Successful vocalists are, and have to be, hard workers; yet the majority are indolent, and disinclined to learn more than is necessary. Heretofore their maltreatment of the English language—and the songs and oratorios written in it—has been commonly condoned on the ground that the language itself was more to blame than they; but they will have to turn over a new leaf and go to work again, if Mr. Russell establishes his point, which we think he does. He makes it clear that the difficulty of English is not due to the sounds in themselves, but to the *many sounds*, the closely allied vowel-colors, the finer shades, with which our language abounds. But all these can be taught without much difficulty, and Mr. Russell's attempt to teach them ought to attract the attention of singers and speakers. His book contains sections on pronunciation, vowels, diphthongs and dipthongal vowels, and consonants, while the last chapter is concerned with practical work. A few sentences may be added to illustrate the author's lucid way of driving home truths:

We put all possible voice in all consonants, *singing* them, as nearly as possible, taking all noise out of them that we can, yet never forgetting that they are consonants. We put as much vowel-character in them as we can, yet heeding the articulations.——When we have found the *place* of all the vowels and the consonants, their individual character and color; when the ear is well tuned in phonetics, and the mouth in quick responsiveness, we will find great delight in language, we will find our speech improving with our singing, and, if we properly continue in the work, we will sing well in spite of

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voice limitations, for a good enunciation and smooth, precise articulation are the largest of the true singer's accomplishments.

Georges Jacobi, composer of the opera "The Black Crook," which had a run of more than 300 nights, and of "La Mariée depuis midi," written for Mme. Judic, and sung by her all over Europe, and of innumerable ballets, died last Thursday, at the age of sixty-six. He was born in Berlin on February 13, 1840, and at the age of six began the study of the violin under Edward and Leopold Ganz. In 1849 he went to Brussels as a pupil of De Bériot. He also studied at the Paris Conservatoire, where he gained a first prize for violin playing. He was in the orchestra of the Opéra Comique, the Grand Opéra, and the Bouffes Opéra. For more than twenty-five years he was conductor at the Alhambra in London. As a teacher he won a high reputation, and in 1896 he was made a professor at the Royal College of Music in London. He was twice elected president of the Association of Conductors in England, was an officer of the French Academy, and a Knight Commander of the Spanish Order of Isabel.

Otto Neitzel, the eminent Cologne critic, who is to give a series of lecture recitals in this country the coming season, is the author of the best book on France's greatest composer, Saint-Saëns, whom we shall also hear. It is published by the Harmonie Company in Berlin. Adolf Jullien's "Musiciens d'aujourd'hui" contains good articles on some of the works of Saint-Saëns, and Georges Servières has a charming study of the same composer in his "La musique française moderne," Saint-Saëns's own books are admirable specimens of musical criticism; especially his "Portraits et Souvenirs," which contains sympathetic articles on Berlioz, Gounod, Liszt, Massé, Rubinstein, Bizet, Wagnerism, "Don Giovanni," "The Musical Movement," and "Lyric Drama and Music Drama." In our own language the best essay on Saint-Saëns is that of Arthur Hervey in his "Masters of French Music" (pp. 107-172), published by the Scribners.

Nothing succeeds like sensationalism. Richard Strauss's "Salome" is to be produced this season even in Italy—at the Scala in Milan, under the direction of Toscanini. The manager of the Scala, Giulio Gatti-Casazza, heard the work at Cologne and promptly secured the performing rights.

The first critically revised edition of Beethoven's letters complete is announced by the publishers of *Die Musik*, Schuster & Loeffler, in Berlin. It will be issued in about 25 *Lieferungen* of 50 to 60 pages each.

There was probably more desire for advertisement than anxiety about British dramatic art at the bottom of the conduct of the London manager who tried to exclude three or four of the ablest dramatic critics from his first-night performances, on the ground that they took themselves too seriously, and failed to appreciate English acting at its real value. The notion that the worth of the modern actor is underestimated by the contemporary press is absurd. This fact was brought home to the manager in question by some pointed comment, and he, thereupon, shifted his ground, falling back upon the old plea that it is practically impossible for a critic of a first-night performance to write a competent review for the next morning's paper, and that it is unfair, anyhow, to judge a piece by its first public performance. Undoubtedly, reviews could often be made more complete if the author had more time for reflection, but, on the other hand, a trained writer, having once formed his opinion, does not require a very long time to put it upon paper, with intelligibility at least, if not with elegance. If the critic's opinion is worthless, it will not be any the more precious when uttered in polished literary phrase. Regarding the artistic quality of a first public performance, as compared with that of a later representation, all depends upon circumstances. If the piece is produced prematurely, without adequate supervision or rehearsal, the interpretation of it certainly is likely to improve for some time to come. But a producing manager who is both able and conscientious would not raise his curtain for a public exhibition until he was satisfied that the performance was as perfect as rehearsal could make it. Assured of that fact, he would invite all the critics at the earliest possible moment, knowing that their presence would act like a tonic upon his actors. This is one of the commonplaces of theatrical experience. Moreover, the general public expects to get its report of a new play the morning after. Herein, of course, is the main reason why some managers reserve any seats at all for the critics. In no other way can they get so much of the cheap publicity which is the very breath of their commercial and "artistic" existence. That much of the so-called criticism which is printed is grossly incapable and unjust, as the London manager asserts, may be true, but the greater part of it is of that adulatory sort, of which no manager ever yet complained and of which the unsophisticated public is the chief victim.

Richard Mansfield will soon begin rehearsals for the production of Ibsen's "Peer Gynt" upon a scenic scale of great magnitude. There are fifty-one speaking persons in the cast, eleven scenes, a choir; two ballets, and a large number of supernumeraries. The music of Grieg will be one of the attractions of the performance.

E. S. Willard, one of the leaders of the English-speaking stage, will open his American season in Montreal on October 1 with Michael Morton's "Col. Newcome," the adaptation from Thackeray's masterpiece, which Beerbohm Tree presented with considerable success in London. Mr. Willard, in many of his impersonations, has demonstrated his ability to depict with exquisite veracity certain attributes—such as natural tenderness, fine simplicity, unconscious dignity, and a sweet old formal courtesy—which are essential to any recognizable portrait of Thackeray's hero. Therefore, whatever the quality of the play may be, his enactment of the Colonel cannot fail to excite the liveliest interest and sympathy.

The London critics are not particularly enthusiastic over the production of "The Winter's Tale" at His Majesty's Theatre in London, although it is plain that, as usual under Beerbohm Tree's management, everything possible has been done for the play by the stage manager. Some of the scenes are described as very beautiful. It is plain that the performance was not brilliant enough to disguise the infirmities of the play. Miss Terry, never a good first-night actress, was more than commonly uncertain of her words as Hermione, though she did not fail to exercise her invariable charm and make her power felt.

Art.

This season's excavations by the French School of Athens at Delos have already resulted in discoveries of artistic importance. Six large archaic lions in marble, ornamenting an esplanade by the Sacred Lake, are a unique find in Greece. Several well-preserved houses have been brought to light in the quarter of the Theatre, and in one of them an inscription in perfect condition gives a precise date. There is a statue of the Muse Polyhymnia, with elaborately executed drapery, superior to the well-known Polyhymnia in the Berlin Museum, and like it probably a replica of the famous work of Philiskos of Rhodes. Quite as interesting is the superb head, larger than life, of Dionysios (Dionysos?) found in a newly excavated temple. This is announced as the finest figure found at Delos for fifteen years, and one of the finest known in Greece. A "treasure" of forty coins (tetradrachma, drachma, and subdivisions), found hidden beneath the base of a monument, is of interest to numismatists.

Alfred Stevens, once a painter of renown, old and paralytic for several years, has surprised the world by dying after it had forgotten that he was alive. The marine paintings, of which he was so proud, excellent and ancestral of recent art as they are, may not be remembered; but his fine ladies will be looked for as long as the Second French Empire interests mankind. The satin gowns, the crinoline, the cashmere shawls from India, drape his figures, whose postures and visible emotions live in his canvas as they do in the pages of Octave Feuillet. Between them and the present-day Parisiennes of Helleu there is a great gulf fixed; and it does not make those of us feel younger who had glimpses of that vanished society led by Empress Eugénie, still living. Was ever an epoch more abruptly ended, and now more remote, than the days of Marie Antoinette and Josephine? When the Second Empire Renaissance arrives, as it is sure to do with all its inartistic sumptuosity, then inspiration and copy will be sought from Alfred Stevens. By birth he was a Belgian, but a son of one of the great Napoleon's officers; and in 1870, when all his ideals were crumbling, he turned sharpshooter against the German destroyers of his Paris.

A large portion of the Asiatic collection of Lord Curzon of Kedleston, made by him in the course of his travels through the East during the last twenty years, and especially during the seven years from 1898 to 1905, when he was viceroy and governor-general of India, is now on view at the Bethnal Green Museum. The collection illustrates chiefly the art of India, Burma, Nepal, and Tibet, but specimens are also

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included of the art productions of Turkey, Persia, Afghanistan, Siam, and China. It thus embraces in a single survey the majority of the countries on the mainland of Asia and presents a comprehensive picture of some at least of the principal artistic manufactures of the East. A number of exhibits in bronze, lacquer, cloisonné and porcelain were secured at the relief of Pekin in 1900.

The examples of the faience of Moustiers gathered together at the Colonial Exposition of Marseilles make a unique collection. According to Garnier, in his "Histoire de la Céramique," Moustiers, after Rouen and Nevers, was the most important centre for the manufacture of French faience. The period of the town's finest artistic output extends from the end of the seventeenth century to within a few years of the French Revolution, and the collection at Marseilles contains many excellent specimens by the greatest artists in this ware, the two Clérissys, Joseph Olerys, De Fouquë and Pol and Hyacinthe Roux.

A collection of works by the French sculptor, Puget, most of which had been either unknown or considered lost, has been offered to the museum of Marseilles by Emile Ricard, brother of the portrait painter, Gustave Ricard. This large collection includes sculptures, paintings, engravings, and sketches. The gift is timely, as a statue to Puget is about to be erected in Marseilles.

The house of Rubens in Antwerp is to be reconstructed just as it was three centuries ago. A museum will be installed in it, which will contain everything connected with the life of the great master that can be collected.

The special spring number of the *International Studio* is devoted to the Royal Institute of Painters in Water Colors, long known as "The New Society." The text includes a "History of the Institute," some account of its members, and a chronological list of the latter; while the illustrations consist of forty reproductions in color of the works of living and dead members. These one would judge to be faithful, and perhaps as many of them as could be expected are of really interesting and meritorious works of art. "Southwold from the Beach," by Tom Collier; "On the Downs, near Harting," by J. Aumonier; and "The Hayfield," by Claude Hayes, may be especially mentioned as vigorous and effective landscapes, while "April," by the late G. H. Boughton, is quite the best of the figure-pieces. It is noticeable that none of these bears the kind of aggressively poetical title which is as frequent here as in most collections of British art.

"The Ambones (pulpits) of Ravello and Salerno" is perhaps the most interesting article in the September *Burlington Magazine*. The author, J. Travenor-Perry, arrives at the conclusion that these gorgeous structures are "in all probability the production of Lombard artists, educated in the Greco-Roman school of Monte Cassino, and influenced largely in their designs by Saracenic workmen." This controverts a prevailing theory that the early classical revival in Italian sculpture derives from southern Italy. Sir Richard Holmes continues his series on English miniature painters with an article on that sterling artist of the Commonwealth and Restoration, Samuel Cooper. Prof. C. J. Holmes concludes his valuable survey of Rembrandt's etchings, dwelling this time upon such important pieces as "The Three Crosses," "Abraham's Sacrifice," and "Christ before the People." The American section is chiefly occupied by R. T. H. Halsey's account of the exhibition of Colonial American silver at Boston. It should open the eyes of Americans to the merit of a native art hitherto unduly neglected.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amadon, Alfred Mason. Atlas of Physiology. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.50 net.
Anderson, Sir Robert. Sidelights on the Home Rule Movement. Dutton. $3 net.
Andreas and the Fates of the Apostles. Edited by George P. Krapp. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Arnold's Sohrab and Rustum. Edited by W. P. Trent and W. T. Brewster. Boston: Ginn & Co. 25 cents.
Aspinwall, Alicia. The Story of Marie de Rozel, Huguenot. Dutton. 75 cents net.
Asser's Life of King Alfred. Translated by Albert S. Cook. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Baldwin, James Mark. Thought and Things, or Genetic Logic. Vol. I.: Functional Logic. Macmillan Co. $2.75.
Barine, Arvède. The Life of Alfred De Musset. Edwin C. Hill Co.
Bashore, Harvey B. Outlines of Practical Sanitation. John Wiley & Sons. $1.25 net.
Beutenmüller, William. Manual of Butterflies and Moths.—Manual of American and European Insects. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 25 cents each.
Brooks's Readers. Five Volumes. American Book Co.
Browning. Selections by Robert M. Lovett. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Burrell, Joseph Dunn. A New Appraisal of Christian Science. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 60 cents net.
Canfield, Dorothea F., and George R. Carpenter. Elementary Composition. Macmillan Co.
Crocker, Francis B., and Schuyler S. Wheeler. The Management of Electrical Machinery. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1 net.
De La Pasture, Mrs. Henry. A Toy Tragedy. Dutton. $1.50.
De Morgan, William. Joseph Vance. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Dickens's Tale of Two Cities. Edited by James W. Linn. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Dutton, Maude Barrows. Little Stories of France. American Book Co. 40 cents.
Ellison, Edith Nicholl. A Child's Recollections of Tennyson. Dutton. $1 net.
Ewald, Carl. Two-Legs. Translated by Alexander T. De Mattos. Scribners. $1.
Franklin, Benjamin. His Life. Edited by D. H. Montgomery. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Garland, James S. New England Town Law. Boston; The Boston Book Co.
Gaskell's Cranford. Edited by William E. Simonds. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Gould, S. Baring. A Book of the Rhine. Macmillan Co. $2.
Greenough, John James. The Origin of Supernatural Conceptions. Published by the author. $1.25.
Harben, Will N. Ann Boyd. Harpers. $1.50.
Hering, Henry A. The Burglar's Club. B. W. Dodge Co. $1.25.
Historical Greek Coins. Described by G. F. Hill. Macmillan Co. $2.50.
Holder, Charles F. Half Hours with Fishes, Reptiles, and Birds. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Horne, Herman Harrell. The Psychological Principles of Education. Macmillan Co. $1.75.
Houghton, Louise Seymour. The Russian Grandmother's Wonder Tales. Scribners. $1.50.
Jones, J. William. Life and Letters of Robert Edward Lee. Neale Publishing Co. $2.
Kern, O. J. Among Country Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Le Braz, Anatole. The Land of Pardons. Translated by Frances M. Gostling. Macmillan Co. $2.
Lockwood, Mary S. and Emily L. Sherwood. Story of the Records. D. A. R. Washington, D. C.
London, Jack. Moon-Face. Macmillan. $1.50.
Lord, Eliot, and others. The Italian in America. B. F. Buck & Co.
Maine, Henry Sumner. Ancient Law. Henry Holt & Co., $1.75 net.
Martin, Percy F. Through Five Republics of South America. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5 net.
Mathews, Robert Valentine. The Song of the Pines. Edwin C. Hill Co.
McCutcheon, George Barr. Jane Cable. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Milne, William J. Progressive Arithmetics. 3 vols. American Book Co.
Newmarch, Rosa. Songs to a Singer. John Lane Co.
Ober, Frederick A. De Soto. Harpers. $1 net.
Paine, Ralph D. The Story of Martin Coe. The Outing Publishing Co. $1.50.
Patton, John S. Jefferson Cabell and the University of Virginia. Neale Publishing Co. $2.
Pineyro, Enrique. Biografías Americanas. Paris: Garnier.
Redesdale, Lord. The Greater Mission to Japan. Macmillan Co. $1.75.
Richards, William R. The Apostles' Creed in Modern Worship. Scribners. $1 net.
Sheedy, Morgan M. Briefs for Our Times. Thomas Whittaker. $1 net.
Stevenson, Robert Louis. Essays. Edited by William L. Phelps. Scribners.
Still, Alfred. Polyphase Currents. Macmillan Co. $2.50.
Stylee, Edward Sydney. Trumpet and Flag. Putnams. $1.25 net.
Swinburne's Selected Lyrical Poems. Harpers.
Treves, Frederick. Highways and Byways in Dorset. Macmillan Co. $2.
Two-Hundredth Anniversary of the Birth of Benjamin Franklin. Printed by order of the Massachusetts General Court.
Vachell, Horace A. The Face of Clay. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Venturi, A. Storia dell' Arte Italiana. Vols. III. and IV. Milan: Hoepli.
Vernon, William Warren. Readings on the Inferno of Dante. Second edition. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. $4.
Warwickshire. Painted by Frederick Whitehead. Described by Clive Holland. Macmillan Co. $6.
Whimsey Anthology, A. Collected by Carolyn Wells. Scribners.
Wieland, G. R. American Fossil Cycads. Carnegie Institution.
Woods, James Haughton. Practice and Science of Religion. Longmans. 80 cents net.

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